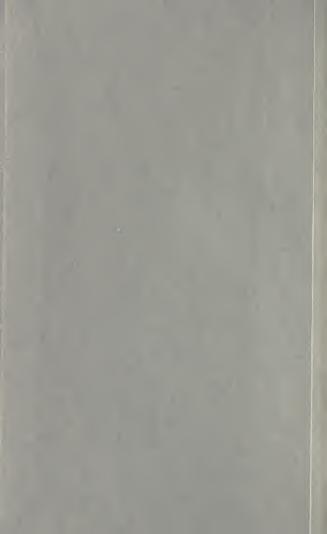


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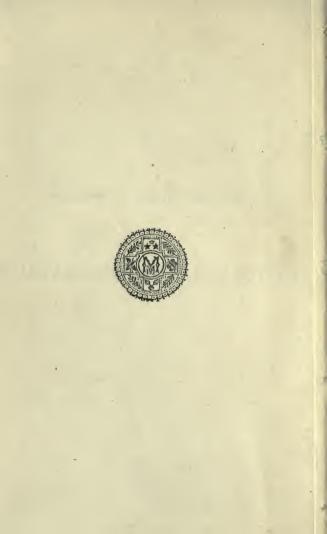


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ELEMENTARY LESSONS

IN

HISTORICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR.



ELEMENTARY LESSONS

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HISTORICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CONTAINING

Accidence and Word-Formation.

BY THE

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NEW EDITION.

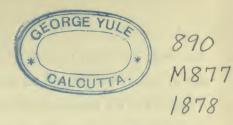
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R. CLAY, SONS, AND TAYLOR,
BREAD STREET HILL, E.C.



PREFACE.

THE present treatise has been drawn up at the urgent request of numerous teachers, who asked for an easier and more elementary work than my "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," published some two years ago. I have endeavoured to the best of my ability to produce a short historical grammar that might be advantageously used as an introduction to my larger book.

I have not, however, made a new book by cutting down and compressing the old one. These "Elementary Lessons" constitute an entirely indepen-

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dent work, with many peculiarities of arrangement that at once distinguish it from the "Accidence." A reference to the earlier chapters alone will at once show how very different the two books are. The illustrative examples scattered throughout the present work are for the most part new, very few of them having been quoted elsewhere.

I trust that, to those engaged in the higher education of boys and girls, these lessons will prove helpful in promoting a more thorough knowledge of our "mother tongue," the study of which has of late years been put on a better footing, and has acquired a distinct, and by no means an unimportant, place in the curriculum of a liberal education.

Syntax is not treated of in this volume, but I hope before long to be able to get out both a small and a large book on this important subject. My best thanks are due to my kind friend, the Rev. W. W. Skeat, for his assistance in revising the proof-sheets. At his suggestion I have adopted the classification of the periods of the Language on p. 33, and the mnemonics on p. 48.

King's College, Fuly 1874.

CONTRACTIONS.

Allit. = Alliterative.

Anat. Mel. = Anatomy of Melancholy

C.T. = Canterbury Tales.

Dan. = Danish.

De Reg. = De Regimine Principum.

C. Mundi. = Cursor Mundi;

C. = Cotton MS.

F. = Fairfax MS.
G. = Göttingen MS.

T. = Trinity MS.

E.E. = Early English.

Fr. = French.

Ger, = German.

Gest. Rom. = Gesta Romanorum

Gr. = Greek.

Icel. = Icelandic.

Kath. = St. Katherine.

Lat. = Latin.

M.E. = Middle English.

N. Fr. = Norman-French.

O.E. = Old English.

O.E. Misc. = O.E. Miscellany.

O.E. Hom. = Old English Homilies.

O.Fr. = Old French.

O.H. Ger. = Old High German.

P. of C. = Pricke of Conscience.

P. of Pl. = Pastime of Pleasure.

Pol. Rel. = Political, Religious.

T.E. = Tudor English.



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ELEMENTARY LESSONS

IN

HISTORICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I.

I.—Relation of English to the Languages of Europe and Asia.

ENGLISH BELONGS TO THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES.

1. Most of the nations of Europe, and some in Asia, (India, Persia, Afghanistan,) have sprung from one common stock, and are therefore related to one another, by blood and by language.

2. These nations philologists have called the Indo-

European or Aryan family.

The ancestors of the Aryan race once lived together in the highlands north of the Himâlaya mountains.

A time came, of which history gives us no account, when the old Aryan tribes separated from each other. and left their ancient abode to seek new settlements.

Two great tribes, the old Hindus and the Persians, crossed the Himâlaya mountains, and found new homes on the banks of the Ganges and Indus, from whence they soon spread over Hindostan, Persia, Sec

The rest of the Aryan tribes, at different times, and at considerable intervals, travelled westward and came into Europe.

3. The first Arvan comers were the Kelts, who settled in parts of Germany, Italy, Spain, Gaul, and the British Isles. Their dialects still survive in Wales. the Highlands of Scotland, Ireland, the Isle of Man, and in Armorica or Brittany.

The Kelts were driven out of their settlements in Italy, and pushed further westward by the advance of

the Italic tribes.

About the same time the peninsula of Greece was peopled by the Hellenic or Grecian tribes.

Next came the Teutons, who took up their abode in Germany and Scandinavia. The last Aryan settlement was made by the Lithuanians and Slavonians.

The Slavonians gradually spread themselves over Russia, Bohemia, Poland, &c.

The Lithuanians settled on the Baltic coast in Prussia, Livonia, and Lithuania.

4. Of the people living in Europe the Fins, Lapps, Esths, Basques, Hungarians, and Turks, do not belong to the Indo-European family.

5. TABLE OF INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES.

I. Sanscrit (dead). 2. Hindû, Hindustanî, Bengalî, Mahrattî (all descendants from the I. Hindu Sanscrit). 3. Cingalese (language of Cevlon). 4. Gypsy dialect. 1. Zend (the old language of Persia) II. Iranian 2. Persian. I. Bas Breton or Armorican 2. Welsh. 3. Erse or Irish. III. Keltic 4. Gaelic or Highland Scotch. 5. Manx. I. Latin (and old Italian Dialects. Oscan and Umbrian). 2. The Romance dialects which have sprung from Latin. IV. Italic or (a) Italian. Romanic (b) French. (c) Spanish and Portuguese (d) Roumansch. (e) Wallachian. 1. Ancient Greek, with its various V. Hellenic or dialects, Attic, Ionic, Doric, &c. Grecian 2, Modern Greek. 1. Low - German. - English, Dutch, Flemish. VI. Teutonic 2. Scandinavian.—Icelandic, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian. 3. High-German. - Modern German. 1. Old Prussian (dead). VII. Lettic 2. Lettish. I. Russian.

VIII. Slavonic

B 2

II. Relation of English to the Teutonic Group.

ENGLISH IS A TEUTONIC LANGUAGE, AND BELONGS TO THE LOW-GERMAN DIALECTS.

6. The Teutonic group is that with which we are more nearly connected, English being one of its most important members.

There are three great divisions of the Teutonic people; (1) Low-German, (2) Scandinavian,

(3) High-German.

The Low-Germans formerly lived near the lowlying lands, by the mouths of the rivers Rhine, Weser, and Elbe.

The Scandinavians, probably an off-shoot from the Low-Germans, settled in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and at a later period in Iceland.

The High-Germans lived inland, in the highlands

south of Germany (Bavaria, &c.)

- 7. The word *Dutch*, now only applied to the people of Holland, formerly denoted all German-speaking people. The Germans still call themselves *Deutsche*, and their language *Deutsche*.
- 8. The word *Dutch* is an adjective signifying national, and was the name by which the old Teutons called themselves in contradistinction to other people, whose language they were unable to understand. They styled themselves the (intelligible)

¹ Cp. O.H. Ger. diot, O.E. theod people; O.H. Germ diutise, O.E. theodisc of the people, popular.

people, but called others, as the Romans, and the Kelts in Britain, Walsch and Welsh.

Ancient nations gave themselves polite names, but spoke contemptuously of their neighbours. The old Hindus called themselves Aryans from Arya, noble: the Slavonians or Slaves got their name from Slavo, a word or renown.

9. English belongs to the Low-German division of the Teutonic languages. Its nearest living relations are *Dutch* (the language of Holland), *Flemish* (once the court language of Brabant), *Frisian* (between the Scheldt and Jutland and on the islands near the shore), *Plat-Deutsch* (on the Baltic coast); *Gothic* (the language of the Goths in the ancient province of Dacia) is a *dead* language. The Gothic translation of the Gospels by *Wulfila* or Ulfilas (in the fourth century) is the oldest monument of Teutonic literature extant. The *old Saxon* is also a dead language; it was once spoken between the Rhine and the Elbe in Munster, Essen, and Cleves.

10. TABLE OF TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

(I. Gothic (dead).

2. Old Saxon (dead).
3. English and Lowland-Scotch.

4. Frisian.

5. Dutch. 6. Flemish.

1. Icelandic.

II. Scandinavian

z. Swedish.

3. Danish.

4. Norwegian.

III. High-German

Modern High-German, with its older stages; Middle High-German, and Old High-German.

CHAPTER II.

History of the English Language.

ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH.

11. The English language was brought into Britain about the middle of the fifth century by Low-German tribes, commonly known as Angles, Saxons, and Jutes (Frisians).

These Teutonic invaders were known to the Britons as Saxons, but they called themselves English (Anglisc), and their new home England (Ængla-land, the land of the Angles).

The term Angle or Engle is supposed by some to take its name from the district of Angeln in the Duchy of Schleswig.

12. The Frisians or Jutes settled in Kent; the Angles in the north, east, and central parts of Britain; and the Saxons in the south and west parts of the island (in Essex, Sussex, Wessex, &c.)

The Lowlands of Scotland once formed part of the old Northumbrian kingdom, hence Lowland-Scotch is

an English dialect.

Foreign Elements in English.

ENGLISH WAS ORIGINALLY AN INFLECTED AND UNMIXED LANGUAGE, BUT IS NOW AN UNINFLECTED AND COMPOSITE LANGUAGE.

13. The language that was brought into Britain by the Low-German invaders, was an inflected and synthetic language, like its congener Modern German, and its more distant relatives, Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin.

Though modern English has lost most of the older grammatical endings, and has been reduced to an analytical language (like Danish, French, and Persian), it still belongs, by virtue of its descent, to the family of inflected languages.

14. The English language brought over by the Angles, Saxons, &c., was an *unmixed* language.

There were no non-Teutonic elements in its vocabulary.

It is now a composite or mixed language, having adopted words from various nations with whom the English people have had dealings at different times.

The foreign elements in English may therefore be

treated historically.

I .- The Keltic Element in English.

15. The English invaders of Britain displaced the old Keltic inhabitants, and did not largely mix with them; their language was, therefore, but little influenced by the speech of the British tribes. It affected the spoken far more than the written language, for from

the ninth to the twelfth century English literature furnishes but few examples of borrowed Keltic terms. The words of this period are barrow (mound), brock, breeches, clout, crock, kiln, cradle, mattock, pool.

In the literature of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find more frequent traces of Keltic terms. of which the following still survive :- boast, boisterous, bribe, cam (crooked), crag, dainty, darn, daub, fleam, glen, havoc, kiln, mop, pillow.

- 16. The Norman-French contained some few Keltic terms borrowed from the old Gaulish; some of these found their way into English, as: bag, barren, bargain, barter, barrel, basin, basket, bonnet, bucket, bran, button, chemise, car, cart, dagger, gravel, gown, harness, marl, mitten, motley, osier, bot, rogue, ribbon, varlet, vassal, wicket.
- 17. A few words, the names of Keltic things, are of recent introduction : as, bannock, bard, bog, brogue, clan, claymore, clog, log, fillibeg, gag, kilt, pibrock, plaid, pony, shamrock, slab, slogan, whiskey.
- 18. The oldest geographical names are of course Keltic, especially names of rivers and of mountains; as, Avon, Ouse, Esk, Exe, Usk, Thames, Derwent. Dee, &c., Pen-y-Gent, Helvellyn, &c., Aberdeen, Kent, i jover, &c.

11.—The Scandinavian Element in English.

19. Towards the end of the eighth century (A.D. 787) the Northmen of Scandinavia (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Iceland) commonly known as Danes, made descents upon the East coasts of England, Scotland, the Hebrides, and Ireland, as well as in other parts of Europe.

In the ninth century they obtained a permanent tooting in the North and East parts of England: and in the eleventh century a Danish dynasty was established on the throne for nearly thirty years (A.D. 1016—1042).

The Scandinavians were a Teutonic people and their language very closely resembled the old English speech. It is, therefore, no easy matter to determine the exact number of words introduced by the old Northmen. Many of the borrowed words have taken an English form, so as to be no longer distinguished as pure Scandinavian. The spoken language was affected by the Danes far more than the written language, especially in Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, Lancashire, Cumberland, Lincoln, and Norfolk, where many Danish words are still to be found. In the eleventh and twelfth centuries only a few Scandinavian words found their way into the written language; such words are, aren, are; by, a town; fel, a hill; til, to.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries they became more common and are easily discernible; many of these still survive, as blunt, bole (of a tree), bound (for a journey), busk, buckle-to (buskle), cake, call, cast, curl, cat, dairy, die, daze, droop, fellow, flit, fro, froward, gab, gait, ill, irk- (some), kid, kindle, loft, low (flame), neave (fist), muck, odd, puck, plough, root, same, scold, sly, shy, tarn (lake), ugly (E.E. ugge, to fear), weak; gar (to cause, make), greet (to weep), are used by Spenser.

^{20.} Very many Norse words once very common in old Northern writers have gone out of use, or have become provincial, as, at, to (before infinitives) beck (stream), erre (scar), last (fault), lit, (stain), layte (to seck), mun (must, shall), trine (to go), tyne (to lose), tynsel (loss), throp or thorp (town), &c.

- 21. Many names of places ending in by (town), fell (hill), beck (stream), shaw (wood), garth (enclosure), indicate Danish settlements; firth is the Scandinavian ford (cp. Mil-ford, Water-ford).
- 22. The Danish invasions did much to unsettle the inflexions in the North of England. Before the Norman-French conquest we find the n of the infinitive falling off, and the verb in the third person singular present indicative ending in es instead of eth. The use of the plural suffix in as was frequently extended to nouns that originally formed the plural by the suffix a or u. The dialects of the North and North-East of England in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries are almost as flexionless as modern English. These parts of England were the last to come under the influence of Norman-French.

III .- The Latin Element in English.

- the Roman Invasion.
- 23. The Roman occupation of Britain for nearly four centuries (from A.D. 43 to A.D. 426) left its traces in the few names of places, as: Chester, Gloucester, Dorchester, Exeter, Stratton, Lincoln, &c.

Fortified towns and great roads became familiar objects to the old English settlers in Britain; so castra, a camp, and strata, a street, soon passed into English under the forms ceastre = chester, and strat = street. Probably portus, a port, as in Ports-mouth, was known to the oldest English. Cp. O.E. port-gerefa, a port-reeve.

2. LATIN OF THE SECOND PERIOD: St. Augustine's Mission.

24. The introduction of Christianity about the end of the sixth century (A.D. 596) brought England into connection with Rome, and during the four following centuries a large number of Latin words became

familiar to educated Englishmen.

The words introduced into the language during this period were, for the most part, connected with the Church, its services and observances, as: ancor, hermit (anchoreta); postol, apostle (apostolus); biscop, bishop (episcopus); calc, chalice (calix); clustor, cloister (claustrum); diacon, deacon (diaconus); derc, clerk (clericus); munec, monk (monachus); mæsse, mass (missa); mynster, minster (monasterium); preost, priest (presbyter); sanct, saint (sanctus); carited, charity (caritas); ælmesse, alms (eleēmosyna); predician, preach (prædicare); regol, rule (regula).

A few foreign articles now came in for the first time,

and retained their Latin names.

(1) A few articles of food, clothing, ornaments, &c.: butor, butter (butyrum); cêse, cheese (caseus); pæl, pall (pallium); tunic, tunic (tunica).

(2) Trees and Plants: cedar, cedar (cedrus); fic, fig (ficus); peru, pear (pirum); persuc, peach (persicum); lactuce, lettice (lactuca); lilie, lily (lilium); pipor, pepper (piper); pisa, pease (pisum), &c.

(3) Animals: mere-greot, pearl (margarita); camel, camel (camelus); culufre, dove (columba); leo, lion (leo); pard, leopard (pardus); ostre, oyster (ostrea); pâwa, peacock (pavo); trûht, trout (tructa); turtle, turtle (turtur); olfend (camel), a corruption of elephant.

- (4) Weights: pund, pound (pondus); ynce, inch, ounce (uncia), &c.
- (5) Miscellaneous: candel, candle (candela); disc, disk (discus); culter, coulter (culter); marman -(stan), marble stone (marmor); tafl, table (tabula); mynet, mint (moneta).
- 3. LATIN OF THE THIRD PERIOD: introduced by the Norman Conquest.

25. The Norman Conquest in 1066 was a remarkable event in the history of the English nation, and affected the language more than anything that hap pened either before or after it.

When the Normans made themselves masters of England they attempted to spread their language throughout the island. French became the language of the court and of the nobility: of the clergy and of literature: of the universities and schools: of the courts of law, and of Parliament : but French did not succeed in displacing English, for the great body of the common people refused to give up their mothertongue, and from time to time there arose men who wrote in English for the benefit of those who knew nothing of French or Latin. After a while the Normans, being in the minority, mingled with the English and became one people. While the coalescence was taking place (in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries), there was a mingling of the two languages, and many French words found their way first into the spoken and afterwards into the written language.

After the distinction between Normans and English died out, Norman-French degenerated into a mere

provincial dialect and at last ceased to be spoken in lengland.

In 1349 boys no longer learnt their Latin through

the medium of French.

In 1362 (the 36th of Edward III.) English superseded French and Latin in the courts of law.

Certain political circumstances helped to bring about these changes, such as the loss of Normandy in John's reign, and the French wars of Edward III. (A.D. 1339).

Influence of Norman-French upon the Voca bulary of the English Language.

26. The Norman-French was essentially a Latin language, and the Norman Conquest added to English another very considerable Latin element.

The introduction of French words was the work of some time, and went on gradually from the eleventh

to the fourteenth century.

They came into the written language at first sparingly. In the Saxon Chronicle from 1086 to 1154, we find less than twenty Norman-French words:—court, dub (1086), peace (1135), treasure, prison, justice, rent, privilege, miracle (1137), standard, empress, countess, tower (1140), procession (1154). A little before A.D. 1200 we find, baron, chemise, custom, penance, palfrey, sot, jugler, master, mercy, manner, poor, riches, robbery, sacrament, charity, easy, font, sermon, passion, wait, saint, poverty, large, mantle, pride, service, spouse, taper, turn, &c.

Even at this early period we find hybrids: spushad = marriage; crisme-cloth; maisterling = prince; bispused, bespoused = married; elmesful = charitable, &c.

In Layamon's Brut (A.D. 1205), we find in the two versions less than one hundred words of French origin, among which we note especially, admiral, abbey, annoy, attire, astronomy, camp, change, chattel, chieftain, close, country, cope, crown, cross, cry, delay duke, escape, espy, false, fail, fool, grace, guile, guise, hardily, honour, hostage, hurt, ire, cable, legion, messenger, machine, male, mile, mountain, nun, nunnery, pilgrim, post, power, to roll, school, scorn, senator, serve, serving, sire, suffer, use, &c.

- 27. Numerous French words were introduced into the language during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, by those native writers who for the first time translated religious treatises, poems, and romances, from the French into English. These compensated for the original imperfections of our language in religious, ethical, philosophical, and poetical terms; besides giving us numerous words referring to war, chivalry, and the chase. Towards the middle of the fourteenth century, French influence upon the language was at its height.
- 28. Chaucer has been wrongfully accused of corrupting the written language of his day, by fresh importation of Romance words. In his translations he doubtless was compelled to employ many new terms for ideas and things, as yet unfamiliar to his countrymen; but his vocabulary is not more deeply tinged

¹ See the long list of French words in the "Ancren Riwle," "King Alexander" ("Hist. Outlines," pp. 339-544).

with French words than other writers of the fourteenth century. He no doubt gave his authority to words already in general use, and rejected others in favour of native terms, and thus did much to fix the native vocabulary, and to stop the increasing inflow of borrowed words. It is said that not more than perhaps one hundred Romance words used by Chaucer in his various works have become obsolete

"It is a great but very widely spread error to suppose that the influx of French words in the fourteenth century was due alone to poetry and other branches of pure literature. The Law, which now first became organized into a science, introduced many borrowed terms from the nomenclature of Latin and French jurisprudence; the glass-worker, the enameller, the architect, the brass-founder, the Flemish clothier, and the other handicraftsmen, whom Norman tastes and luxury invited, or domestic oppression expelled from the Continent, brought with them the vocabularies of their respective arts; and Mediterranean commerce which was stimulated by the demand for English wool, then the finest in Europe—imported from the harbours of a sea where the French was the predominant language, both new articles of merchandize and the French designation for them. The sciences too, medicine, physics, geography, alchemy, astrology, all of which became known to England chiefly through French channels, added numerous specific terms to the existing vocabulary; and very many of the words first employed in English writings as a part of the technical phraseology of these various arts and knowledges, soon passed out into the domain of common life, in modified or untechnical senses, and thus became

[Chap.

incorporated into the general tongue of society and of books."

29. But when the English vocabulary was thus in creased by this great influx of French terms, many of the native words went out of use. Thus, if we take a thirteenth-century version of the Creed, we find ikenned, conceived; ipined was, suffered; lihte, descended; steih, ascended; imennesse of haluwen, communion of saints; ariste, resurrection. In a fourteenth-century copy (A.D. 1340) of the Lord's Prayer we find yeldinges, trespasses; yelderes, trespassers; vondinge, temptation; vri, deliver. Wickliffe has dettis, dettour, delvvere.2

Tyndal (1526) has treaspasses, treaspas (verb) for

dettis and dettours.

Many good old English words have gone out since Chaucer's time, having been replaced by Romance and Latin terms.

Influence of Norman-French upon the Grammar of English.

30. No language gives up its grammar and adopts a new system of borrowed inflexions for its nouns, adjectives, and verbs, &c.

It will part with the greater portion of its original vocabulary, and yet leave grammatical forms almost untouched. Norman-French words found an easy

Marsh, "History and Origin of English Language," p. 66.

Some older versions of the Pater Noster have gultes and culteres, trespasses and trespassers; childe (shield) for fri (free).

entrance into our language, but the influence of four centuries only served to modify and to diminish English inflexions, not to eradicate them by the substitution of new forms.

The Danish invasion had unsettled the language in many parts of the country, and in the literature of the eleventh century we see a disposition to adopt a less inflexional structure, than in the earlier periods. Nearly every nation of the Teutonic family has, by the loss of inflexions, become almost as uninflexional as our own. The tendency of all highly inflected or synthetical languages is to become analytical or noninflexional, so that, had there been no Norman Conquest, we should have followed the ordinary growth of language, in replacing the older grammatical endings by the use of relational words, as, prepositions, auxiliaries, &c.

Doubtless the Norman invasion caused this change to take place more rapidly and generally, than it would otherwise have done, but even the slight direct modifications here spoken of are not found much before the fourteenth century.

31. The power of forming new words by derivation from Teutonic roots was to a certain extent checked by the introduction of so large a number of foreign words.

Instead of making a new word by the old and formerly familiar method of attaching a suffix to a living native root, it became far easier to adopt a term ready made.

German and Icelandic have lost much less than other Teutonic languages.

Cp. O.E. thanc (thought); thanc-ol (thoughtful); thancful, thancwurth (grateful); thancolmod (prudent); thancwurthlice (gratefully), &c.

32. Some Norman-French suffixes replaced English

ones.

In the fourteenth century we find the feminine -ess taking the place of -en, and -ster. Cp. dwelleresse in Wicliffe for dwellstere; goddesse (Chaucer) for Old English gydin; and the modern forms bond-age, till-age, hindr-ance, knave-ry, wondr-ous, x &c.

33. Some substitutes for inflexion came into use. The preposition of replaced the genitive -s; the comparison of Adjectives was expressed sometimes by more and most instead of -er and -est. Many Romance adjectives were inflected in the plural after the Norman-French method, as wateres principales, capitalles lettres; we also find children innocens (La Tour Laundry, p. 104).

The Old English method of forming a plural adjec-

tive was by adding -an (-en), -e.

When used substantively, the Romance adjective formed its plural by the addition of -s, and the Old English by -e. Cp. "He ous tekth to knawe the great-e thinges vram the littl-e, the preciouse-s vram the vile-s." To this method we owe the early forms gentles, familiars, which became the models for many others, as "our delicates and wantons" (Holland's "Pliny," p. 603); the yellowes = the jaundice

¹ See "Historical Outlines," p. 39.

² He teaches us to know the great things from the little ones, the precious things from the vile ones.

(Hollinshed), "yonges" = young ones (L. Andrewe); calms, shallows, worthies, &c.

The use of Auxiliary Verbs (have, shall, will) became very common after the Norman Conquest,

34. The earliest and the greatest change was upon the pronunciation.

All the older vowel endings -a, -o, -u, became -e, and the terminations -an, -as, -ath, -on, -od, became -en, -es, -eth, -en, -ed.

After a time (fourteenth century) the final e fell off altogether, or was retained as an orthographical expedient. Cp. O.E. nama, name; steorra, M.E. sterre, star; O. E. suna, M. E. sone = son, &c.

35. This change of final vowels, simple as it was, served to weaken most of the inflexional forms.

It also helped to break down the old distinction of grammatical gender.

Thus the suffix -a was a sign of the masculine. and -e of the feminine gender; but when webb-a (m). webb-e (f), a weaver, came to be represented by the same form, webbe, then the final -e, if retained as a sign of gender, must be limited either to the masculine or feminine. An attempt was made to restrict it to the masculine, as hunt-e, a hunter, spus-e, a bridegroom; but webbe, a female weaver, occurs in "Piers Plowman." We now use webster.

We also find it frequently used up to the middle of the fourteenth century, to denote the agent. (Cp. the restricted sense of the old fem. -ster; see p. 63). We can easily understand how widuwa (a widow-er) dropped out of use, leaving widuwe (a widow), from

which a new masculine had to be formed; just as in the sixteenth century we find spouse (m), and spousesse (f) for the twelfth century spus (m), and spuse (f).

36. After a time a few fresh vowel sounds found their way into the language, as u, in duly; oi in boil;

the a in fame; ei in aisle.

37. Guttural sounds were softened down or became mute.

(1) Initial and final c (k) became ch, tch, as O.E. cild = child; godlic = godlich (godly); streecan = streeche (stretch); sc became sh; sceal = shall; fise = fish; g became i (y), w; geleâfa = ileafe (be-lief); hand-ge-weorc = handy-work; fugol = fowl; dæg = day; lagu = law.

In some instances cg has become j (ge, dge) cring-

an = to cringe; brycg (M.E. brigge) = bridge.

(2) c, ch, h, g, have disappeared or become mute; ic = ich = ih = I; cniht (M.E. knicht) = knight; heah = high; dirtig = dirty; &c. Cp. the falling away of h in hlaf = loaf; hring = ring; hnecca = neck; k, and g, before n, have become mute: cneow = knee; gnagan = to gnaw. Cp. the weakening of 1 before f and k in calf, walk, &c.

J (jet), z, sh (sure), zh (azure), were sounds that

came into use after the Norman Conquest.

38. A new accentuation was introduced by the Normans. The old English accent like that of other Teutonic nations was upon the root syllable as unfaith'-ful-ly, un-be-liev'-ing; but in French there was a slight stress of the voice upon the final syllable.

When French words were first adopted they retained their original accent, thus raison and voyage became reason and voyage before they were accented as reason

and vovage.

In the written poetical language of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, we find words of pure English origin ending in -ing, -liche, -ness, receiving an accent on the final syllable. Chaucer rhymes gladnésse with distrésse. But an attempt was made even as early as Chaucer's time to make borrowed words conform to the native accentuation, and in the "Canterbury Tales" we find mortal, tempest, &c. as well as mortal, tempést, &c.

4. LATIN OF THE FOURTH PERIOD: introduced by the Revival of Learning. It also of the Court was a cle

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39. The large number of French words brought into the language by the Norman invasion, prepared the way for the introduction of fresh Latin words, through the impetus given to learning and literature by the revival of learning in England at the beginning of the sixteenth century.

There are then two distinct classes of Latin words in English. (1) Those that have come indirectly from Latin through French. (2) Those that have come directly from the Latin.

Words of the first class have undergone much change in spelling, and their origin is often obscured; those of the second class have suffered but little alteration, and their origin is easily recognised.

Latin.	Words coming from Latin through Norman-French.	Words coming directly from the Latin.
captivum dilatare factum fragilem hospitale lectionem pungentem regalem securum separare	caitiff delay feat frail hotel lesson poignant royal sure sever	captive dilate fact fragile hospital lection pungent regal secure separate

- 40. Under the influence of learning, many words coming indirectly from the Latin have taken a more classical form, as, assaute, dette, defaut, aventure, vitaille, have been altered to assault, debt, default, adventure, victual, &c.
- 41. The influx of Latin and Greek words, by means of learning and education, lasted from the time of Henry VII. to the end of the reign of Charles II. Many Latin words when first introduced into our language altered their termination, as, splendidious, mulierosity, but others were adopted in their original form, as, chylus = chyle; classis = class; precipitium = precipice; mummia = mummy; so too with Greek words, parallelon = parallel; ecstasis = ecstasy; epocha = epoch.

As the origin of these loans was well known, we can understand why compact, convict, &c. came into use before compacted and convicted as passive participles.

1 42. A great number of classical words found their way into the written language which never passed into general usage, as, intenervate, to soften; deturpated, deformed (Jeremy Taylor); ludibundness, sanguinolency (Henry More), &c.

- During the reigns of Elizabeth, James, and Charles I. fine writing and speaking were greatly affected; but fortunately many true lovers of their noble mothertongue raised a cry against the pedantic use of scholastic or ink-horn terms as they were then called, and thereby did something to stop the tendency to inundate the language with long and useless words.

Thomas Wilson writing in 1553 says, "Among other lessons this should first be learned, that we never affect any strange ink-horn terms, but to speak as is commonly received; neither seeking to be over fine, nor yet living over careless; using our speech as most men do, and ordering our wits as the fewest have done. Some seek so far for outlandish English, that they forget altogether their mother's language, and I dare swear this, if some of their mothers were alive they were not able to tell what they say, and yet these fine English clerks will say they speak in their mother tongue, if a man should charge them with counterfeiting the king's English." Gill in his Logonomia Anglica, published in 1619, thus notices what he calls the "new mange in our speaking and writing." "O harsh lips, I now hear all around me such words as common, vices, envy, malice; even virtue, study, justice, pity, mercy, compassion, profit, commodity, colour, grace, favour, acceptance. But whither, I pray, in all

the world have you banished those words which our forefathers used for these new-fangled ones? Are our words to be exiled like our citizens? Is the new barbaric invasion to extirpate the English tongue? O ye Englishmen, on you, I say, I call, in whose veins that blood flows, retain, retain, what yet remains of our native speech, and, whatever vestiges of our forefathers are yet to be seen, on these plant your footsteps." Butler ("Hudibras," I. i. 91) speaks of:—

"A Babylonish dialect,
Which learned pedants much affect:
'Twas English cut on Greek or Latin,
Like fustian heretofore on satin."

43. There are a few miscellaneous Romance words that have come into the language chiefly during the

Tudor and Stuart periods.

(1) Spanish terms.—"During the latter half of the sixteenth century, and the first half of the seventeenth century," the Spanish language "was very widely known in England, indeed far more familiar than it ever since has been.

"The wars in the Low Countries, the probabilities at one period of a match with Spain, the fact that Spanish was almost as serviceable at Brussels, at Milan, at Naples, and for a time at Vienna, not to speak of Lima and Mexico, as at Madrid itself, and scarcely less indispensable; the many points of contact, friendly and hostile, of England with Spain for well nigh a century—all this had conduced to an extended knowledge of Spanish in England. It was popular at Court; Queen Mary and Queen Elizabeth were both excellent Spanish scholars. . . . The statesman and scholars of the time were rarely ignorant of the language."—Trench.

Many Spanish words end in -ado, -ade, -dor, -illo, -oon: as armada, barricade, bravado, desperado, eldorado, grenade, parade, tornado, corridor, matador, battledor, armadillo, flotilla, peccadillo, punctilio (originally puntillo), vanilla, maroon, picaroon, paragon. Other familiar terms are alligator (el-lagarto), buffalo, cannibal, cargo, cigar, cochineal, crusade, don, duenna, filibuster, gala, garotte, indigo, mulatto, negro, parasol, &c.

(2) Portuguese.—Caste, fetishism, palaver, porce-

lain, moidore, &c.

- (3) Italian.—In the time of Chaucer, Italian exercised an important influence upon our literature, but scarcely any upon the language. During the reigns of Henry VIII., Mary, and Elizabeth, Italian was as necessary and familiar to every courtier as French is now-a-days. Numerous Italian works were translated into English and Italian peculiarities of speech were copied by English speakers and writers who wished to be thought in fashion. The writings of Surrey, Wyatt, Spenser, and Milton, show an intimate acquaintance with Italian literature. To Italian we are indebted for the following words: ambuscade, balustrade, bagatelle, balcony, bandit, bravo, broccoli, buffoon, burlesque, bust, cadence, canto, caricature, cartoon, charlatan, citadel, concert, ditto, folio, gazette, grotto, harlequin, lava, madrigal, masquerade, motto, moustache, opera, parapet, pedant, proviso, regatta, rocket, ruffian, serenade, sketch, sovereign, stanza, stiletto, umbrella, volcano, &c.
- (4) Modern French.—Some few were introduced during the reign of Charles II., as chagrin, good

Lat. lacerta = lizard.

graces, grimace, repartee. Many others have come into the language at a still later period: accoucheur, lébut, depôt, déjeuner, élite, goût, programme, soirée, précis, &c.

44. A few words are borrowed from other **Teutonic** tongues:—

(1) Dutch.—Mostly nautical terms, as boom, hov,

sloop, schooner, skipper, yacht, &c.

- (2) German.—(i) Names of metals, cobalt, nickel, zinc, &c.; (ii) loafer, iceberg, plunder; (iii) some few terms are formed after a German model, father-land, folk-lore, fuller's earth, hand-book, one-sided, pipe-clay, stand-point, &c.
- 45. We have naturalized miscellaneous words from various sources .—
- (1) Hindu. Calico, chintz, muslin, loot, jungle, pundit, rice, durbar, &c.

(2) Persian.—Chess, lilac, orange, sash, turban, &c.

(3) Hebrew.—Abbot, amen, cabal, cherub, jubilee, pharisaical, sabbath, shibboleth.

- (4) Arabic.—Admiral, alchemy, alcohol, almanac, arsenal, assassin, bazaar, chemistry, cipher, gazelle, giraffe, shrub, syrup, sofa, talisman, tariff, zenith, zero, &c.
 - (5) Turkish.—Bey, chouse, scimitar, &c.
- (6) Malay.—(Run) amuck, bamboo, bantam, orangutang, sago, &c.
- (7) Chinese.—Caddy, nankeen, satin, tea, mandurin, &c.
- (8) American.—Canoe, cocoa, hammock, maize, to-bucco, tomahawk, wigwam, yam.

Preponderance of the Native over the Foreign Element.

46. The total number of words in a complete English dictionary would be about 100,000. Numerically the words of Classical origin are about twice as many as pure English terms. The best writers, however, use less than a tenth of the total number; while in ordinary conversation, our vocabulary contains from three to five thousand words.

Recollecting that all our most familiar terms are unborrowed, and that in an ordinary page of English, pure native words are used about five times as often as one foreign term, we can have no difficulty in seeing that the pure English element greatly preponderates over the foreign element.

English is a mixed language only in regard to its vocabulary; its grammar is neither borrowed nor mixed. We cannot, therefore, speak of English as a Romance tongue; the construction and meaning of sentences depend upon the use of our grammatical inflexions, and as these are of native origin they serve still more to make the English element the essential and most important part of our language.

- 47. Pure English elements are :-
- (1) Grammatical inflexions.
- a. Plural suffixes of nouns (-s,-n): possessive case (-s).
- Suffixes marking comparison of adjectives *s-er*, *-est*).

- c. Verbal inflexions marking persons (-st, -th, -s); tense (-d, -t); endings of participles (-en, -ing).
 - d. Auxiliary words used in place of inflexions:
 - i. Words used for comparing of adjectives (more and most).

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ii. Auxiliary verbs (be, am, have, shall, will).

(2) Grammatical words.

- a. All numerals: one, two, &c., except second, million, billion.
 - b. Demonstratives: the, this, that, &c.
- c. Pronouns (personal, relative, &c.): I, thou, he, who. &c.
- d. Many adverbs of time and place: here, there, when. &c.
 - e. Most prepositions and conjunctions.
- f. All nouns forming their plural by vowel change.
 - g. All adjectives of irregular comparison.
- h. All verbs forming their past tense by change of vowel.
 - i. All anomalous verbs.
- j. Causative verbs, formed from intransitive verbs by vowel change.

(3) i. Numerous suffixes of-

- a. Nouns, -hood, -ship, -dom, -ness, -ing, -th (-t), &c.
- b. Adjectives, -ful, -ly, -en, -ish, -some, &c.
- c. Verbs, -en, -le, -er.

ii. Numerous prefixes.

a, be, for, ful, over, out, &c.

(4). Most monosyllabic words.

5. The names of most striking objects and agencies in nature as the heavenly bodies, sky, heaven, sun, moon, stars: the elements, fire, earth, water, and their natural changes, inunder, lightning, hail, snow, rain, wind, storm, light, heat, darkness, &c.; the seasons, spring, summer, winter; 1 the natural divisions of time, day, night, morning, evening, twilight, sunset, sunrise, &c.; natural features, external scenery, height, hill, dale, dell, sea, stream, flood, spring, well, island, land, wood, tree. &c.: words used in earliest childhood, father, mother, sister, brother, son, daughter, child, home, kin, friend, house, roof, hearth; parts of the house and household furniture, room, wall, yard, floor, stair, gate, stool, bed, bench, loom, spoon, cup, kettle, &c. : food and clothing, cloth, skirt, coat, shoe, hat, &c.; bread. loaf, milk, cake, ale, wine, beer; agricultural terms, plough, rake, harrow, scythe, barn, flail, sheaf, yoke, &c.; the ordinary terms of traffic, trade, business, cheap, dear, sell, buy, baker, miller, smith, tanner, bookseller, &c.; names of trees and plants, ash, beech, birch, oak, apple, corn, wheat, &c.; quadrupeds, deer, sheep, sow, swine, cow, horse, goat, fox, dog, hound, &c.; birds, hawk, raven, rook, crow, swan, owl, dove, lark, nightingale, hen, goose, duck, gander, drake, &c.; fish, cel, herring, lobster, otter, whale, &c.; insects, worm, adder, snake, wasp, fly, gnat, &c.; parts of the body of man and beast, flesh, skin, bone, head, limb, hand, &c.; horn, snout,

Autumn is Latin.

tail, claw, hoof, &c.; modes of bodily actions and posture, &c., sit, stand, lean, walk, run, leap, stagger; wake, sleep; nod, rise, talk, &c.; emotions and passions, &c., love, hope, fear, tear, weep, laugh, smile, &c.; common colours, white, red, brown, &c.

48. To the Romance and Latin elements belong many words connected with dignitaries, offices, &c. as, duke, marquis, baron, &c.; government, state, people, parliament, treaty, cabinet, minister, army, &c.; law, attorney, barrister, damage, felony, &c.; church, baptism, ceremony, bible, prayer, preach, lesson, creed, evangelist, &c.; general and abstract terms, sense, emotion, passion, colour, &c. Latin and Greek words are most numerous in scientific and philosophical works.

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CHAPTER III.

Early English Dialects.

49. From the eleventh to the middle of the fourteenth century there was no standard or classical language. Various forms of English were spoken in different parts of the country, and every work written during this period illustrates some local variety of the English Speech. There were three leading dialects in the fourteenth century; Southern, Midland, and Northern, each distinguished by certain grammatical peculiarities.

Thus in a work written South of the Thames the verb in the plural of the present indicative ends in -eth, as we habbeth, we have: a work composed between the Thames and Humber has -en instead of -eth, as we habben.

A Northern writer in the district between the Humber and the Firth of Forth avoids the use of -eth and -en, and substitutes -es for them, or, as is frequently the case, uses an uninflected form, as we haves, or we have.

Southern.—"We hopieth for to habbe heuenriche blisce": "Ye habbeth iherd thet godspel." (Kentish Sermons, A.D. 1240—50.)

Bote the Flemynges that woneth in the west syde of Wales habbeth yleft here straunge speche, and speketh Saxonlych ynow. (Trevisa, A.D. 1387.)

Midland.— Thei knelen alle, and with o vois
The King thei thonken of this chois.
(Gower, A.D. 1393.)

.We hauen shep, and we hauen swin. (Havelok

the Dane, before 1300.)

Northern. — Tharfor maysters soom tyme uses the wand that has childer to lere under thair hand. (Hampole, 1340.)

Thir twa heuens ay obout-rynnes

Both day and nyght, and neuer blynnes.

(1b.)

(*Ib*.)

Modern English has sprung from the East-Midland Dialect.

50. The Midland dialect between the Thames and the Humber covered a very large area and had various local varieties.

The most important of these was the East-Midland spoken in Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, which had many words and grammatical forms in common with the Northern dialects.

As early as the beginning of the thirteenth century it had thrown off most of the older inflexions (preserved by the Southern dialects) and was almost as flexionless as our own. It had an extensive literature and numbered among its writers, Ormin, Robert of Brunne, Wicliffe, Gower and Chaucer. Of all these, Chaucer was the author whose works were most popular and widely diffused. Successive writers, as Hoccleve, Lydgate, and Heywood, took him for their model, and thus his influence did not die out till a great change caused by the revival of learning, and

other important circumstances in the reigns of the Tudors had brought about a new era in the language and literature.

It was Chaucer's influence then that caused the East Midland speech to supersede the other dialects and to assume the position of the standard literary English, from which has come in a direct line with but few flexional changes the language spoken and written by educated Englishmen in all parts of the British Empire.

50a. Periods of the English Language.— A language is said to be dead when it is no longer spoken. Such a language cannot be altered; but a living language is always undergoing some change or other. We do not always take note of it, because it is so very gradual; but when we compare the writers of one period with those of another, we have plain evidence of the fact. The farther we go back in this comparison the greater the changes appear, and our language in its earliest period looks very much like a foreign tongue.

In referring to the earlier periods or stages of growth through which our language has passed, we

shall distinguish the following divisions:-

(1) Old English (A.D. 450—1100).—The language of this period is inflexional. Its vocabulary contains few or no foreign elements. Its poetry is alliterative. To this period belong the writings of Cædmon, Alfred, and Ælfric.

(2) Early English (A.D. 1100—1250). — The language in this period shows many changes both in orthography and grammar. In the first part of this

period the modifications were chiefly orthographical, but they affected the endings of words, and thus led the way to the grammatical changes which took place in the latter part of the thirteenth century.

To the earlier part of this period belong the following works: the Brut, written by Layamon; the Ormulum, by Ormin; the Ancren Riwle, &c. To the latter half belong the Story of Genesis and Exodus,

the Owl and Nightingale, &c.

- (3) Middle English (A.D. 1250-1485).-Most of the older inflexions of nouns and adjectives have now disappeared. The verbal inflexions are much altered, and many strong verbs have been replaced by weak ones. To the first half of this period belong a Metrical Chronicle, and Lives of Saints, attributed to Robert of Gloucester; Langtoft's Metrical Chronicle. translated by Robert of Brunne, and the Handlyng Synne, by the same writer; the Pricke of Conscience, by Hampole; the Avenbite of Inwyt, by Dan Michel of Northgate, Kent. To the second half belong the works of Wicliffe, William Langley (or Langland), Gower, and Chaucer, &c.
 - (4) Modern English, from A.D. 1485 to the present time. We might subdivide this period into two parts, calling the language in the earlier period from 1485 to 1600 Tudor English.

CHAPTER IV.

Sounds and Letters.

(1) LETTERS.

51. Letters are conventional signs employed to represent sounds. They have grown out of the old pictorial mode of writing, and were at first abbreviated pictures.

In the oldest alphabets, a letter does not represent an indivisible sound (consonant or vowel), but a

syllable (consonant and vowel).

After a time the consonants were looked upon as the most important part, and consequently they alone were written, or written in full, while the vowel was either omitted or represented by some less conspicuous symbol.

Such was the character of the old Phœnician alphabet, from which have come the Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Sanskrit, and Greek alphabets.

The Latin alphabet, derived from one of the older forms of the Greek, is the parent of our own symbols.

¹ Cp. the names of the letters in Hebrew and Greek, b = beth (house), Beta: g = gimel (camel), Gamma; d = daleth (door), Delta.

The oldest English alphabet consisted of twentyfour 1 letters, all except three being Roman characters: b, (thorn = th); and p (wên = w), are Runic letters; D, & is merely a crossed d used instead of the thorn. i is another form of i. and v of u. w is a doubling of u.

(2) SOUNDS.

52. The spoken alphabet is composed of sounds produced by the articulating organs (or organs of speech), throat, tongue, palate, lips, &c., which serve to modify the breath as it issues from the larvnx.

There are two great divisions of Sounds:

Vowels and Consonants.

The Vowels are the open sounds of a language. In a vowel sound the emission of the breath is modified by the organs of speech, but is not interrupted or stopped by the actual contact of any of these organs. In the Indo-European speech there were only three original short vowels a, i, u (far, bit, full), from which have sprung the long vowels a (father), i (machine), u (foot).

The dipthongs are formed in passing from one vowel sound to another: the oldest are e = a + i (fête), o = a + u (note). All the varieties of vowel sounds,

See Whitney, "Language and the study of Language," p. 465 (1867).

(and they may be almost infinite) are modifications

of the three original vowels (a, i, u.)

The Consonants are closer sounds than the vowels and less musical. They are produced by the contact of one or other of the organs of speech, whereby the stream of breath is wholly or partially stopped. In the oldest Indo-European speech there were only twelve consonant sounds, b, p, d, t, g, k, s, m, n, l, r; and h in combination with b, d, g, forming the aspirates bh, dh, gh (cp. Gr. φ , θ , χ).

53. Classification of Consonants.—The consonants can be arranged according to the organ by which they are sounded: Guttural (g, k): Dental (d, t, th), Labial (b, p, v, f) &c. They can also be classified according as the breath is wholly or partially stopped in its exit. Stopped sounds are called mutes or checks, as g, k, d, t, b, p.

In the sounds m, n, ng, the breath passes through

the nose, and they are called nasals.

Partially stopped sounds are termed Spirants, as, h, th, f, s, z, &c.; l and r are called Trills.

54. In comparing b and p &c., d and t &c., we shall find that b and d are pronounced with less effort than p and t; hence b and d, &c. are said to be soft or flat, while p and t, &c. are called hard or sharp consonants.

55. TABLE OF CONSONANT SOUNDS.

MUTES.				SPIRANTS.		
-	Flat.	Sharp.	Nasal.	Flat.	Sharp.	Trilled
Gutturals .	G	К	NG		Ch (loch)	
Palatals .	J	Ch			Y (yea)	
Palatal Sibilants				Zh (azure)	Sh (sure)	R
Dental Sibilants				Z (prize, rise)	S (mouse)	L
Dentals .	D	Т	N	Dh (bathe)	Th (bath)	
Labials	В	Р	М	W (witch)	F Hw (which)	

56. Ch and j (in English) are compounds; ch = t + sh (sure); i = d + zh (azure).

Zh and sh are connected with the *palatals*, while z and s are allied to the dental, or lingual series of sounds.

- 57. From this table of consonants we have omitted
- (1) c; because it can be represented by k before a, o, u, and by s (in *rice*) before e, i, y.
 - (2) q; because it is equivalent to kw.
 - (3) x; because it is a compound of ks, as in fox.

Number of Elementary Sounds in the English spoken Alphabet.

58. In addition to the twenty-four consonants contained in the above table, we have fourteen vowels and five diphthongs, making altogether forty-three sounds.

I.—Consonants.

I.	ь.	9. m.	17.	<i>y</i> .
2.	d.	IO. 11.	18.	Z.
3.	f.	11. p.	19.	ch.
4.	g.	12. r.	20.	dh (bathe)
5.	h.	13. s.	21.	th (bath).
6.	j.	14. t.	22.	zh (azure).
7.	k.	15. v.	23.	sh (sure).
8.	1.	16. 70.	24.	hw (what).

II .- Vowels.

25.	a in gnat.	32.	e in meet.
26.	a in pair, ware.	33.	i in knit.
27.	a fame.	34.	o in not.
28.	a father.	35.	o in note.
29.	a all.	36.	oo in fool, rude.
30.	a want.	37.	oo in wood, put.
31.	e in met.	38.	u in nut.

III.—Diphthongs.

39.	i in high.
40.	i in aye.
41.	oi in boil.
42.	ow in how bound.
43.	ew in mew.

Imperfections of the English Alphabet.

59. A perfect alphabet must be based upon phonetic principles, and (1) every simple sound must be represented by a distinct symbol; (2) no sound must be represented by more than one sign.

a. The spoken alphabet contains forty-three sounds. but the written alphabet has only twenty-six letters or symbols to represent them; therefore in the first point necessary to a perfect system of orthography the English alphabet is found wanting.

The alphabet, as we have seen, is redundant, containing three superfluous letters, c, q, x, so that it contains only twenty-three letters wherewith to represent forty-three sounds. Again, the five vowels, a, e, i, o, u, have to represent thirteen sounds (see § 58). It is thus both imperfect and redundant.

The same combinations of letters, too, have distinct sounds, as ough in bough, borough, cough, chough, hough, hiccough, though, trough, through, Sc. sough;

ea in beat, bear, heard, &c.

b. In regard to the second point, that no sound should be represented by more than one sign, we again find that the English alphabet fails. The letter ō (in note) may be represented by oa (boat), oe (toe), eo (yeoman), ou (soul), ow (sow), ew (sew), au (hautboy), eau (beau), owe (owe), oo (floor), oh (oh!). The alphabet is therefore inconsistent as well as imperfect.

Many letters are silent as in psalm, calf, could, gnat,

bnow, &c.

c. The English alphabet is supplemented by a number of double letters called digraphs (oa. oo, &c.) which are as inconsistently employed as the simple

d. Other expedients for remedying the defects of the alphabet are recognised—

(1) The use of a final e to denote a long vowel, as lite, note, &c. But even with regard to this e the orthography is not consistent; it will not allow a word to end in v, although the preceding vowel is short, hence an e is retained in live, give, &c.

(2) The doubling of consonants to indicate a short

vowel, as folly, hotter, &c.2

It must be recollected that the letters a, e, i, o, u, were originally devised and intended to represent the vowel sounds heard in father, prey, pique, pole, rule, respectively. In other languages that employ them they still have this value.

During the written period of our language the pronunciation of the vowels has undergone great and extensive changes at different periods, while the spelling has not kept pace with these changes, so that there has arisen a great dislocation of our orthographical system, a divorcement of our written from our spoken alphabet. The introduction of foreign elements into the English language during its written period has brought into use different, and often discordant, systems of orthography (cp. ch in church, chivalry, Christian, &c.). In addition to this there are peculiarities arising out of the orthographical usages of the Old-English dialects.

* This arose through the short vowel causing the doubling of

the consonant.

ⁱ This came about because the final e was kept in writing after the sound was dropped. The i in *bite* was long while the word was dissyllabic.

CHAPTER V.

Permutation or Interchange of Sounds.

60. The sounds of a language are liable to certain changes.

One sound often passes into another.

- (1) The vowels are subject to almost infinite variations: thus, short a, as in *gnat*, has kept its place in *land*, band, &c., but has become ai in name, and o in swan, and ou in bound (O.E. band), &c. Long a has passed into o in home (= hâm), bone (= bân), &c. Long i (as in machine), has become i in bite, drive, &c. Long u (as in pool) has become ou, as in house (= hûs).
- (2) The consonants also pass into one another, and the laws governing these changes may be arranged under the following heads.
- i. All sounds uttered by the same organ are interchangeable, as b and p, &c., d and t, &c. To ascertain these, read across the table in sect. 55.
- ii. Sounds belonging to the same series though uttered by different organs, are interchangeable. Thus, the spirants f and th; th and s; l and r,

&c., often interchange. Read the columns down-wards in section 55.

iii. Combination of consonants leads to assimilation of the one to the other, as gospel = gos-spel = O.E. godspel; ditto = Latin dictum.

61. Sounds belonging to the same organ interchange.—The most common change of sounds belonging to the same organ is the passing of a sharp into its corresponding flat mute, or vice versâ. Pass from col. 1 to col. 2 in section 55. Sometimes the mutes and the aspirates of the same organ interchange.

Labials.—B has become p in gossip = O.E. godsib. P has become b in cobweb = M.E. copweb. F has become v in vixen = fixen from fox; vat = fat. Cp. wife and wives. B and p change to v, as in have = O.E. habban; knave = O.E. cnapa. B and v sometimes pass into their corresponding nasal m, summerset = Fr. soubresaut; malmsey = O.Fr. malvoisie; M changes to b in marble, = Lat. marmor.

Dentals.—D becomes t in clot = clod; abbot = O.E. abbod. T passes into d in card = chart, Fr. carte, Lat. charta; pedigree = T.E. petigree. D and t become th in father, mother, O.E. fader, moder; author = O.E. autour, Lat. auctor. Th has become d in could = O.E. cuthe; bedlam = Bethlehem; it passes into t in nostril = O.E. nas-thyrlu = M.E. nos-thirles.

Gutturals.—K has become g in wig = periwig = peruque; goblet = Fr. gobelet = M.Lat. cupelletum.

Palatals.—Ch and j interchange in jaw = chaw; a-jar = a-char.

62. Sounds belonging to the same series interchange:—

- i. The Spirants interchange with one another, F = th. Children often say fumb for thumb. Cp. dwarf, M.E. dwerth and dwerg = O.E. thweorh; Russian Fedor = Theodore. F often represents an older h or gh, as cough, laugh, &c. Th becomes s as loves = loveth. S between two vowels often becomes an \mathbf{r} instead of \mathbf{z} . Cp. are = ase, were = wese. Cp. forlorn = forlosen; frore (Milton) = frozen; varlet = M. Lat. vassaletus.
- ii. Trills.—L and r very frequently pass into one another, as marble = Fr. marbre, Lat. marmor; palfrey = Fr. palefroi = Lat. paraveredus; slander = Fr. esclandre = Lat. scandalum; chapter = Fr. chapitre = Lat. capitulum.
- iii. Gutturals and Palatals.—K has become ch, as chin, child = O.E. cin, cild; ditch and which = O.E. dic and hwile. G has become j in singe = O.E. besengan; bridge = O.E. brycg, M.E. brigge. Cp. joy = Fr. jouir, Lat. gaudere.
- 63. Combination of Consonants causes assimilation. When two consonants come together the first is made like the second, or the second like the first. Cp. best = bes-st = bet-st; ad-vise with at-tend, and absorb with absorption. The above examples show us that we cannot keep every combination of sounds. Thus, we may write cupboard, but we must pronounce it cubboard.

The general law for the combination of consonant

sounds is, that a flat sound must be followed by a flat sound, and a sharp by a sharp sound.

This has an important bearing in English upon (1) the plural of nouns, (2) the possessive case of nouns, (3) the third person singular of verbs, (4) the past tense and passive participle of verbs.

Flat + Flat.

- (1) Slabs = slabz; lads = ladz; wives = wivz.
- (2) Dog's = dog'z.
- (3) Wags = wagz; stabs = stabz; bathes = bathez.
- (4) Dubbed = dubd; hugged = hugd.

Sharp + Sharp.

- (1) Slaps, mats, reefs.
- (2) Cat's, bank's.
- (3) Reaps, fasts.
- (4) Weeped has become wept; lacked = lackt.
- 64. Some sounds are more difficult to pronounce than others. Difficult sounds, as gutturals, often pass into easier sounds as spirants, or into mere breathings; sometimes they disappear altogether. This explains—
- (1) The loss of gutturals at the end of words, as godly = O.E. godlic; I = O.E. Ic; day = O.E. dag, &c.
 - (2) The silent letters in through, though, high, &c.
 - (3) The f sound in laugh, cough, &c.
 - (4) The y sound in year, O.E. ger.
 - (5) The ow in tallow, M.E. talgh.

· 65. The pronunciation of one sound is rendered easier by an additional one. Thus, m often becomesmb or mp, and n changes to nd or nt. Also s becomes st.

(B and p come in after m, because they are Labials, and d, t after n, because they are Dentals.)

- (1) Slumber = O.E. slumerian; nimble = O.E. nimol; number = Lat. numerus; empty = O.E. emtig; tempt = Lat. tentare.
- (2) Thunder = O.E. thunor; hind = O.E. hine; tender = Lat. tener; ancient = O.Fr. ancien; tyrant = Fr. tiran.
- (3) Amongst = M.E. amonges; whilst = M.E. whiles, &c.
- 66. Occasionally certain combinations of sounds become difficult, and one of the sounds is dropped. Thus, -nf, -nth, and -ns, have become -f, -th, and -s. Cp. soft with Germ. sanft; tooth with Goth. tunthus, Germ. zahn; goose (O.E. gôs) with Germ. gans.

GRIMM'S LAW OF PERMUTATION OF CONSONANTS.

67. We have seen that one sound may pass into another, and also that one sound is often preferred to another, especially by children in learning to speak, who say nuffink for nothing, and poot for foot, &c.

Dialects are often distinguished by their preference for particular sounds. In the south-west of England v and z are used instead of f and s, as vinger (finger), zing (sing). Languages of the same class exhibit a similar partiality; thus, where we have d and th the Germans employ th (= t) and d. Cp. deer = Ger. thier = O.H.Ger. tier; thorn = Ger. dorn.

This substitution of one sound for another extends to all the languages of the Indo-European family, and for the most part follows the rules already laid down for the Permutation of Sounds. (1) All sounds pronounced by the same organ are interchangeable; (2) All sounds of the same series are liable to pass into one another. We can read table in sect. 55 across or downwards.

The collection of rules by which we can at once tell what sounds in one language correspond to those of its kindred tongues, is called GRIMM'S LAW.

To render the law as simple as possible, we must bear in mind, (1) the three-fold division of sounds into Aspirate, Flat, and Sharp, according to the following arrangement:—

Names.	Aspirate.	Flat or Soft.	Sharp or Hard.
Labial	f	ь	p
Dental	th	d	t
Guttural	h .	g	k (c)

- (2) the classification of the Indo-European lan guages into three groups.
 - I. Classical (Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, &c.)
 - II. Low-German (English, &c.)
 - III. High-German.

- (1) Grimm's Law shows us that an Aspirate in I. the Classical Languages is represented by a flat in II. Low-German, and by a sharp in III. High-German.
- (2) A Flat mute in I. corresponds to a sharp in II. and an aspirate in III.
- (3) A Sharp consonant in I. corresponds to an aspirate in II. and a flat in III.

I.	Classical	Aspirate	Flat	Sharp
II.	Low German	Flat	Sharp	Aspirate
III.	High German	Sharp	Aspirate	Flat

ILLUSTRATIONS.

T.

Mnemonic ASH	Classical.	Low German.	O.H.German.
	Aspirate.	Soft or Flat.	Hard or Sharp
Labials	frater	brother	pruoder
Dentals	θυγατηρ	daughter	tohtar Ger. tochter
Gutturals	$\chi \dot{\eta} \nu$, anser (= hanser)	goose	kans

If it be remembered that Soft = Flat, and Hard = Sharp, the whole of Grimm's law can be remembered by the mnemonic word ASH, with its varying forms SHA or HAS, according to the sound which is to come first.

II.

Mnemonic s SHA	Classical.	Low German.	O. II. German.
	Soft or Flat.	Hard or Sharp.	Aspirate.
Labials .	κάννο μς	hem <i>p</i>	hanaf (Ger. hanf)
Dentals .	domare, duo	tame, two	zëman, zvei (Ger. zwei)
Gutturals .	ego, genu	O.E. Ic, knee	Ih, (Ger. ich)

III.

Mnemonic ¹ HAS	Classical.	Low German.	O. H. German.
	Hard or Sharp	Aspirate.	Soft or Flat.
Labials .	pater	father	vatar (Ger vater.)
Dentals .	tu, tres	thou, three	du, dri (Ger. drei)
Gutturals .	socer octo caput	sweor (= sweohr) eight head (O.E.heafod)	Ger. schwager Ger. acht (irreg.) houpit (Ger.haupt)

Suppression, Addition, and Transposition of Consonant Sounds.

68. There are other changes of letters that demand a slight notice. Sounds are (1) dropped, (2) added, (3) transposed.

If it be remembered that Soft = Flat, and Hard = Sharf, the whole of Grimm's law can be remembered by the mnemonic word ASH, with its varying forms SHA or HAS, according to the sound which is to come first.

(1) Dropping of Letters.

Sounds fall away from-

I. the beginning of a word (Aphæresis).

II. the end of a word (Apocope).

III. the body of a word, causing coalescence of two sounds (Syncope).

Accent plays an important part in these changes, unaccented syllables are much weaker than accented ones, and are thus more liable to drop off.

I. APHÆRESIS.

reeve = O.E. ge-rcfa. sport = E.E. disport. bishop = Lat. episcopus.

diamond = Fr. diamant, Lat. adamans.

II. APOCOPE. !

before = O.E. beforan.
riddle = O.E. ræd-els.
riches = E.E. richesse.
maugre = Lat. male-gratum.
pork = Fr. porc, Lat. porcus.

III. SYNCOPE.

brain = O.E. brægen.
head = O.E. heafod.
sexton = sacristan.
palsy = paralysis.

caitiff = Fr. chétif, Lat. captivus.

cruel = Lat. crudelis.

pray = Fr. prier, Lat. precari.

church = O.E. cyrice.

mint = O.E. mynet, Lat. moneta, bounty = Fr. bonté, Lat. bonitatem. clergy = Fr. clergé, Lat. clericatus.

(2) Addition of Letters.

Letters may be added to the primitive form

I. at the beginning of a word (Prothesis).

II. at the end of a word (Epithesis).

III. in the body of a word (Epenthesis).

I. PROTHESIS.

h, haughty, Lat. altus, Fr. haut.

n (from the indef. article), newt (= an ewt); nouch (= an ouch).

s, scramble, scratch, squeeze.

II. EPITHESIS.

d (after an originally final ë), wicked, wretched.

d (after the letter n), sound. See § 65, p. 46.

h (after s), push, nourish.

t (after n). See § 65, p. 46.

t (after s). See § 65, p. 46.

III. EPENTHESIS.

b (after m). See § 65, p. 46.

p (after m). See § 65, p. 46.

d (after 1), alder (-liefest), M.E. aller, i.e. of all.

n (before t), lantern (Lat. laterna).

n (before g), messenger, passenger.

r, groom, hoarse, culprit.

Some letters are merely orthographical blunders, having crept in through a false etymology or analogy.

1 in could because of should, would.

h in lanthorn from a supposed connection with horn; and in rhyme from a supposed connection with rhythm.

th in farther (because confused with further). s in island (as if derived from isle).

w in whole and its derivatives.

x in pickaxe (as if connected with axe. Cp. M.E. picoys).

(3) Metathesis, or Transposition of Letters.

r third for thrid (cp. three), nostrils (for nosthirls), cp. trouble with dis-turb.

ps becomes sp, clasped (= M.E. clapsed), wasp

(= O.E. wæps).

sc becomes cs or x, hoax (O.E. husc), cp. O.E. ascian, M.E. axe for ask.

CHAPTER VI.

Etymology.

69. Etymology treats of the classification, structure, and history of words; its chief divisions are inflexion and derivation.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

70. Words are arranged in classes, according to the functions they perform in a sentence; these classes are called the Parts of Speech.

	(I. Noun.
Declinable -	2. Adjective.
Dettimois 2	3. Pronoun.
	4. Verb.
	5. Adverb.
Indeclinable <	6. Preposition.
Thuecunable <	7. Conjunction.
	8. Interjection.

INFLEXION AND DERIVATION.

71. The changes which words undergo to mark case, gender, number, comparison, tense, person, &c., are called *inflexions*.

¹ Speech here means language.

The inflexion of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, is called *declension*; when applied to verbs, it is called *conjugation*.

A root or radical is that part of a word which cannot be reduced to a simpler or more original form.

According to their origin, roots are either predicative, as horse, white, write, &c.; or demonstrative, as he, the, &c.

When the root is modified by a suffix, it is called a *derivative*; thus wil-ful, good-ly, tru-th, are derived respectively from will, good, and true.

Derivates may be native or foreign, as know-ledge (English), sci-ence (Latin). Cognates must be carefully distinguished from derived words: thus father is cognate with the Latin pater. but paternal is derived from pater.

Two cognate forms of the same class may exist side by side;

from (English), and fro (Scandinavian).

When a derivative or compound consists of elements belonging to different languages, it is called a hybrid, as shepherd-ess (English + Romance), socialism, (Latin + Greek).

A word containing two roots is called a *compound*, as *shep-herd*, *fore-man*, *break-fast*, &c.

Prefixes like be, fore, with, &c., are compounded with verbs as be-speak, fore-tell, with-stand, &c.

Compounds like won't, nill, (will not) are called agglutinative compounds. This term might be applied to all compounds, in which the elements are intimately fused; as none, naught, fortnight, gospel, &c.

72. Suffixes of inflexion and derivation are called formative elements.

All Suffixes are shortened forms of predicative or demonstrative roots.

The first step towards inflexion is collocation, just as

good-like has given us goodly. See Suffixes of Predicative origin.

The suffix -s in Gothic hund-s, Lat. cani-s, which marks the nominative case, is nothing more than a shortened form of the old demonstrative pronoun, sa, O.E. se, the, that.

Thus vox = voc-s, the calling, the voice; rex = reg-s, the

ruling one, the king.

The ending -th in the third person sing. of verbs, as love-th, is another form of our demonstrative the, tha-t.

73. That which was not originally an inflexion often by usage becomes one. Thus the vowel change in the plural of nouns, and in the past tense of strong verbs was not originally an inflexion.

In feet, teeth, &c., a vowel and a plural suffix (s) have been lost from a very early period. See Plurals of Nouns by Vowel change.

The vowel change in *held*, *fell*, &c. is due to an original reduplication. *See* Strong Verbs.

The addition of a syllable causes a change in the root-vowel Cp. nātion, and nătional: fore, and foreheud: break, and breakfast.

The loss of an internal letter causes the lengthening of a vowel, as right (pronounced rīte) was originally rǐht. Cp. ewt from evet, lord from hlaford.

The suffix -n in ox-en was not originally a sign of the plural, but was added to the root, before the addition of the ordinary plural sign -s. After a time the -s dropped off leaving the inserted letter n to represent the plural inflexion. Cp. eaves, alms, riches, &c., which are now treated like plurals in -s.

The primitive plural of ox was not oxan but oxans. Chicken was once used as a plural, but the -en is no plural sign. In O.E. the plural of chicken = $cycen \cdot u$ from cycen, a chicken: after

a time it became chicken-e, or chicken. Cp. M.E. lenden for lenden-u or lenden-e, loins.

Such nouns as song, band, &c. are usually treated as derivatives of the verbs sing, bind, &c. This is an erroneous view. The O.E. sang, band, show that these words are the roots of which sing and bind are weakened forms.

- 74. The same word has sometimes come to have two different forms, with different functions, as to and too; of and off: through and thorough; one and an, &c.
- 75. The loss of inflexion is supplied by the use of independent roots. Case-endings are replaced by pre-positions; verbal endings by auxiliary verbs. Cp. the use of the prepositions of and to for the old genitive and dative inflexions: do, have, shall, will, &c. in the formation of tenses: more and most instead of -er and -est in the comparison of adjectives.

The preposition to has replaced the infinitive ending -an (-en) as, drinc-an = to drink.

76. There is a tendency in all languages to simplify whatever has become complex or obsolete.

Thus the plural suffix -s has replaced various others, in eyes, hands, sisters, = O.E. eâg-an, hand-a, swustr-u.

Many strong verbs have conformed to the weak or regular conjugation, as *helped*, O.E. *heolp*, &c. *See* remarks on Gender and Number of Nouns, and on Strong Verbs.

77. To supply losses, the functions of other parts of speech have been extended. The loss of the old

relative pronouns se, the, &c. left us the neuter indeclinable that; after a time the interrogatives were employed in their stead. See Relative Pronouns.

78. The English language has lost most of the older inflexions, hence its words are no longer formally distinguished (as in Latin, Greek, &c.) as belonging to certain parts of speech without reference to their use in a sentence. The functions of words like homo, amare, &c. are limited, but in English almost any part of speech may be used as any other part of speech.¹

Thus a verb may become a noun without any change of form.

"They think nothing they shall from it pass, When all that is shall be turned to was."

HAWES, Pastime of Pleasure.

"For He [God] is wythoute wes, wythoute ssel by,"
(For He is without was, and without shall be.)

Ayenbite, p. 104.

Even in Shakespeare the preterite of a verb has been converted into a substantive: a feat not easily performed by any synthetical language, cp.

"No had, my Lord!" King John, iv. 2, 207.

'This formal fool, your man, speaks nought but proverbs; and speak men, what they can to him, he'll answer with some rhyme-rotten sentence, or old saying: such spokes as the ancient of the parish use."

H. PORTER'S Two Angry Women of Abingdon.

"Where Galaad made his avowes and hightes (promises)."

HARDYNG'S Chronicle, p. 133.

Hight = the preterite of the old verb hatan to call, promise.

¹ See Abbott's "Shakspearian Grammar.

A substantive is easily used as a verb, thus Fuller in speaking of those writers who multiply on the map of the Holy Land streams bearing the name of "River of Egypt," says:-

"Such is the nimiety of my caution herein, who have Egypt rivered this map to purpose."

FULLER, A Pisgah sight of Palestine, p. 618, ed. 1869.

" Do you think I fable with you." BEN JONSON'S Alchemist.

" Rob. 'Las sir, that lamb

Were most unnatural that should hate the dam.

Steph. Lamb me no lambs, Sir.

ROWLEY, A New Wonder.

Adjectives are used as verbs without even the verbal ending -en. Shakespeare uses to fat, to fatten. Cp. thai greteth = grandescunt, become great (Palladius, On Husbondrie).

In Latin, nominal verbs are not uncommon, but they have a verbal form given them by the suffix to which the inflexions are added as arbor-esc-o from arbor, a tree. Fuller renders "Hac planta in Judaâ aborescit" by-

> " Hissop doth tree it in Judæa." A Pisgah Sight, p. 194.

An adverb may do duty for a verb, as:-

"They askance their eves. SHAKSPEARE'S Rape of Lucrece.

Cp. "To back the horses," &c.

A preposition and a numeral, originally forming an adverbial phrase, has established itself as a verb and produced a noun. Cp. atone and atonement.

"The constable is called to atone the broil." T. HEYWOOD'S English Traveller.

"To atone two Israelites at variance." FULLER, A Pisgah Sight, p. 519.

Any noun may be turned into an adjective; as a gold watch, a church steeple, a silk thread.

By the simple use of the suffix -ed (= possessing), we are able to give a participial, and therefore an adjective appearance to almost any noun. Cp. booted, spurred, one-eved, &c.

"As the Jews' coats were collared above, so they were skirted and fringed below, by God's special command." FULLER, A Pisgah Sight, p. 524.

Adjectives are easily converted into nouns. Cp. simples, worthics, seconds.

> "When I first took thee, 'twas for good and bad. O change thy bad to good." T. HEYWOOD, The late Lancashire Witches.

> "Fear not my fall; the steep is fairest plain." LORD BROOKE'S Alaham.

"O these extremes of misery and joy.

'Tis said sometimes they'll [evil spirits] impudently stand A flight of beams from the forlorn of day, And scorn the crowing of the sprightly cocks."

I. CROWNE'S Thyestes.

" And shall the baser over-rule the better? Or are they better since they are the bigger." CHAPMAN'S Byron's Tragedy.

" Jove but my equal, Cæsar but my second." BEN JONSON'S Sad Shepherd. Even pronominal forms are occasionally employed as nouns:—

"The cruel'st she alive."
SHAKESPEARE Twelfth Night, Act I. Sc. 5.

"The shes of Italy."

Cymbeline, Act I. Sc. 4.

"A wretch, a worm, a nothing."
FORD'S 'Tis Pity, &c.

"Speak of thy fair self, Edith."

J. FLETCHER'S Bloody Brother.

"An unthroughfaresome whalkin" (an impenetrable something).—FAIRFAX.

Interjections may be converted into substantives or verbs:—

"The effect of thine O-yes."

DEKKER, Gull's Hornbook.

" All the fohs in fairest ladys' mouths."

"This sorrowful heigho."

NASH. Lenten Stuff.

" Cough and hem."

" Mew at passionate speeches."

Th.

Mum and hem are used as adjectives in the following passage:—

"Now pleased, now froward, now mum, now hem."

Calisto and Melibaa.

A slight change of pronunciation replaces an inflexion. Cp. bathe and bath, glaze and glass, co'nduct and condu'ct.

CHAPTER VII.

Nouns.

I. GENDER.

79. Gender is a grammatical distinction and applies to words only. Sex is a natural distinction, and applies to living objects.

By personification we can speak of inanimate things

as male or female, as

"The Sun in his glory, the Moon in her wane."

In the oldest English, Sun was treated as a feminine noun, and Moon as masculine. This usage was kept up as late as the fourteenth century, and later still in rare instances.

80. In the oldest English, the grammatical distinction of words as masculine, feminine and neuter, was marked by difference of endings, and difference of declensions.

Nouns ending in -dom, as freedom (freedom) were masculine; nouns ending in -ung, as gretung (greeting), and in -nes, as godnes (godness), were feminine; and some diminutives in -en, as mægden (maiden), and cycen (chicken), were neuter; wife and child were originally neuter; tongue, earth, week, &c. were feminine, and star, sea, tear, &c. were masculine nouns.

(he, the, this, such, an, some, &c.) were declined in three genders, and agreed with the substantives to which they were joined in gender as well as in number and case.

- 81. After the Norman Conquest, adjectives and adjective pronouns lost most of their case-suffixes in the three genders, so that the older distinctions could not well be kept up. In the fourteenth century, the genders of nouns were exchanged for mere marks of sex, names of males being of the masculine gender, those of females of the feminine gender, and the names of inanimate things of the neuter gender; so that, strictly speaking, the so-called genders in modern English do not belong to the words at all, but only to the objects they represent. The only genders in English are in the Pronouns.
- 82. There are three ways of distinguishing the masculine and feminine.
 - I. By the use of suffixes.
 - II. By composition.

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III. By using distinct words for the name of the male and female.

Only the first method comes under the head of grammatical gender.

I.—GENDER MARKED BY DIFFERENCES OF ENDINGS.

83. A.—Teutonic Suffixes.

These are now no longer in general use.

We have a trace of two old English suffixes to mark the feminine: (1) -en, (2) -ster.

Vix-en (O.E. Fyx-en), the feminine of fox (M.E.

vox), is the only one we have preserved out of a tolerably large number once in common use in the oldest English, as

Masc.
ælf (elf).
câs-ere (emperor).
munec (monk).
theôw (man-servant).

Fem. ælf-en (she-elf). câser-en (empress). munec-en (nun). thêow-en (maid-servant).

In the fourteenth century the feminine in -en is rarely met with.

The change from o to i is regular when compared with the old English god (god), gyd-en (goddess), and wulf (wolf), wylfen (she-wolf). Cp. Ger. Fuchs, Füchs-inn. This change is brought about by the addition of the original vowel in the syllable -en. Cp. gold and gilden; cock and chicken.

The suffix -ster exists in spin-ster. This is not strictly a feminine noun, because it does not correspond to a masculine spinner, but is merely restricted to an unmarried woman.

It originally meant a female spinner, as in the following passages:—

- "Let the three housewifely *spinsters* of destiny rather curtail the thread of thy life."

 The Gull's Hornbook.
 - "And my wyf at Westmunstre that wollene cloth made, Spak to the *spinsters* for to spinne hit softe." Piers Plowman, A. Pass, v. 130.

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries we find

¹ This change of the root-vowel (produced by assimilation of two vowels) is called, by German grammarians, umlaut,

sempster, songster, huckster, and tapster used as feminine substantives:—

"Wassel, like a neat sempster, and songster her page bearing a brown bowl." BEN JONSON.

"The tapper of Tayystocke and the tapsters potte."

JACK JUGGLER, p. 68, Ed. Roxb. Club.

"The backster of Baldockburye with her bakinge pele (rod)."

Ih.

In the oldest English feminine nouns ending in -estre (-ster), corresponded to masculines in -ere (er).

Masc.
bæc-ere (baker).
hearp-ere (harper).
hopp-ere (dancer).
rêd-ere (reader).
sang-ere (singer).
seâm-ere (sewer).
tæpp-ere (barman).
webb-ere (weaver).

Fem. bæc-estre. hearp-estre. hopp-estre. rêd-estre. sang-estre. seâm-estre. bæpp-estre. webb-estre.

In the fourteenth century the Norman-French suffix -ess began to replace the English -ster, though the older form lived on for some time side by side with its foreign substitute.

In Wicliffe we find sleestere and sleeresse (a woman slayer), dwellstere and dwelleress (female dweller), singster and singeresse (songster). The employment of webster and songster (Wicliffe), huckster (Trevisa), shepster, backstere and brewstere (Langland's "Piers Plowman"), beggestere (Chaucer), as masculine substantives shows us that even at this early period (Middle English) the force of the suffix was con-

siderably weakened, and its origin obscured by the frequent use of the new ending -ess.

In the seventeenth century the following hybrids (containing the English -ster and the Norman-French -ess) made their appearance; song-str-ess, seam - str - ess, huck - str - ess, spin - str - ess (Howell), tap-str-ess (T. Heywood).

The suffix -ster now merely marks the agent; as, maltster; often with more or less a sense of contempt or depreciation, as, gamester, punster, trickster, youngster.

A large number of words with this suffix, very common in the Elizabethan period, have gone out of common use: drugster, hackster, lewdster, oldster, roadster, &c.

84. In the oldest English -a marks the masculine, and -e the feminine gender.

Masc.
ass-a (ass).
mag-a (kinsman).
nef-a (nephew).
ræg-a, râha (hart).
webb-a (weaver).
wicc-a (sorcerer).
widuw-a (widower).
han-a (cock).
gât, (goat).
wulf (wolf).
hlâford (lord).

Fem.
ass-e.
mag-e.
nef-e.
ræg-e.
webb-e.
wice-e.
widuw-e.
hen (= henn-e).
gæt-e.
wylf (= wylf-e).
hlafdig-e.

In the thirteenth century -a was weakened to -e, consequently there was no distinction in form between the masculine and feminine, hence words like webbe might mean a male or female weaver. (It is masculine in Chaucer, and feminine in "Piers Plowman.") Witch was of the common gender up to a very late period. "Your honour is a witch"

SIR WALTER SCOTT, Fortunes of Nigel, 2.

Wizzard has no connection with witch, but is the O.F. guise-

Widower is a new formation from the feminine widow; it

occurs in "Piers Plowman" (B. ix. 174).

Neve (= nef-a) gave way in the thirteenth century to nephew (M.E. nevew, new; from O.F. nevou, Lat. nepos), but the old feminine nifte was kept up to a much later period.

85. B.-Romance Suffixes.

(1) -ess (Fr. -esse M. Lat. -issa). The Latin -issa makes its appearance before the Norman Conquest in abbudisse, abbess. Before the middle of the fourteenth century, the Norman-French -ess occurs only a few times as the ending of Romance words that had already found their way into the language. Cuntesse (countess) is found as early as 1140; clergesse occurs about 1210; hostesse and emperesse about 1278; charmeresse and maystresse (mistress) in 1340.

In the time of Wicliffe and Chaucer, this suffix established itself in the language as the ending of feminine nouns, being added to English as well as Romance roots.

Wicliffe has ess for ster in dawnseresse, frendesse, neighboresse, techeresse, thralesse. He uses ess in many substantives that had no ess in Norman-French, as cosynesse, devouresse, prophetesse, servauntesse, spousesse.

In the Elizabethan period the number of words in -ess was far greater than at present; this shows that the suffix is now restricted in its application. We no

longer retain waggoness, rectress (Chapman), doctress (Stanyhurst), neatress (Warner), fosteress (Ben Jonson), &c.

One form is now frequently used in both genders,

as singer, dancer, cousin, spouse, &c.

In modern English, -ess is the ordinary suffix of the feminine, and it is added both to native and borrowed words, as goddess, murderess, actress, baroness.

a. The suffix -ess is added to the simple masculine as haroness.

b. The masculine ending is sometimes dropped before the -ess; as sorceress from sorcerer.

c. The masculine ending is shortened before the addition of -ess; as actress from actor.

Duchess is from O.F. duc-esse, duch-esse.

Marchioness is formed from M.L. marchio.

Mistress = O.F. and O.E. maistresse from maister = master and mister.

Lass is perhaps a contraction of laddess.

(2) -ine in hero-ine; and in landgrav-ine and margrav-ine, from the German landgrave and margrave.

(3) -a in donn-a, infanta, sultana, signora.

(4) Lat. -trix from Latin nouns in -tor occurs in some nouns taken directly from the Latin, as adjutor, adjutrix, testator, testatrix.

Empress was originally emperace, Fr. imperatrice, Lat. acc. imperatricem.

Nurse = M.E. nurice, norise, Fr. nourrice, Lat. acc. nutricem.

II. GENDER DENOTED BY COMPOSITION.

86. In the oldest English we find instances of a general term compounded with an attribute, as mancild = manchild; carl-fugol = a male fowl (bird); cwenfugol, a female bird; wifman, woman; wif-freend, a female friend.

In the fourteenth century we find knave-child, boy; mayde-child, girl (Trevisa); men-syngers, wymmen-syngers, male-child, female-bere, she-bere, hee-geyte, hegoat (Wicliffe).

In Modern English, we use

(1) Male and female as male-servant, female-servant; male-cat, female-bee.

(2) Man, woman, or maid, as man-servant, woman-servant, or maid-servant. Sometimes man is added to the feminine, and woman to the masculine to mark contempt; as man-milliner, womantitan.

(3) He and she occur mostly in the names of

animals, as he-goat, she-goat.

This last method was not employed in the oldest English, and did not come into use before the fourteenth century, and then only in the names of animals.

In the Elizabethan period he and she were used as nouns.

"The proudest he."-SHAKESPEARE.

"These shes were nymphs of the chymney."

FULLER.

It is used as late as Dryden's time.

[&]quot; Another he." - Abs. and Achith.

III. DIFFERENT WORDS FOR THE MASCULINE AND FEMININE.

- 87. The use of distinct words for the masculine and feminine, as *father*, *mother*, &c. does not belong to grammatical gender.
 - 88. A few correlative terms, apparently distinct, are etymologically connected.

Masc.

lad.

lass (= lad-ess).

lord.

lady (a final e, denoting the fem. has been lost).

nephew.

nephew.

c (Cp. Lat. nepos, neptis).

king.

queen (from the root kin; the primitive meaning of king = father; queen = mother).

- 89. The rule that the feminine is formed from the masculine is violated in the following words, in which the masculine is formed from the feminine:—
- (1) Bridegroom (from bride) = the bride's man; groom = goom, O.E. guma, E.E. gome, a man. There was an E.E. grom = boy.
 - (2) Widower (from widow). See § 35, p. 19.
- (3) Gander (from gans, the original form of goose).

In the O.E. gandr-a (= ganr-a = gans-a), the a is the sign of the masculine; d is merely a euphonic addition after n, and r represents a more original s.

(4) Drake is a compound from the root end (a duck), with an obsolete suffix -rake, signifying king. (Cp. the suffix -rick in bishoprick).

II.-NUMBER.

90. English, like most modern languages, has two numbers, singular and plural.

Some languages, as French, have only one mode of forming the plural. In English, we have various ways of denoting the plural, one only of which (the addition of s to the singular), is in common use.

In the oldest English there were several plural suffixes, -as, -an, -a, -u (-o): stan-as = stones, steorr-an = stars, hand-a = hands, lim-u = limbs. The most common of these was the suffix -an. After the Norman Conquest these were reduced (in the thirteenth century) to -es, -en; and finally the termination -es or -s became the ordinary sign of the plural.

The suffix -as was originally the plural sign of only one declension of masculine nouns, as fisc (fish), smith; pl., fisc-as, smith-as. It is now the only living suffix which is employed when we borrow new nouns and inflect them in the plural. All other plural endings are merely the relics of a former period in which they had a living power and were not irregular.

After the Norman Conquest the suffix -as became -es (later -us, -ys, -is,) and still remained for the most part a distinct syllable.

[&]quot;His sones and his doughtres, bothe I mene."

Occleve, De Reg. Prin. 620.

[&]quot;To heere Godus wordus thei han forborn."
O. E. Misc. p. 226.

"Her bodyus wer lyke dragonys,
Hor tayles wer lyke schorpyonys,
They had naylys on her knocus,
That wer lyke ankyr hokys."

Tundal, 41 ed. 1843.

" His life

That vanisht into smoke and *cloudes* swift."

SPENSER, Faerie Queene, I. xi. 54.

In the fourteenth century, words of French origin were the first to thrust out the e, and adopt the simple suffix -s (or -z).

This loss of e brings the letter -s into immediate contact with the final letter of the singular, and causes

the following phonetic modifications:-

a. If the singular noun ends in a flat consonant, a liquid, or a vowel, -s has the sound of z, as tubs, lads, stags, hills, hens, feathers, days, &c.

b. If the singular ends in a sharp consonant, -s is pronounced sharp, (as in mouse,) as traps, pits, stacks, &c. (For the reason of this see § 63, p. 45.)

As far as the spoken language is concerned, it would be more correct to say that the plural is formed by adding s or z to the singular.

The fuller form -es (pronounced -ez) for the plural, is obliged to be retained when the singular ends in a sibilant or palatal sound (s, z, x, sh, ch, j), as gas-es, glass-es, wish-es, priz-es, fox-es, church-es, ag-es, judg-es.

Nouns of pure English origin, whose singulars end in -f, -fe, preceded by a long vowel (except oo) or by l, change the f into v, and retain the older ending -es, as leaf, leaves, wife, .

wives, wolf, wolves.

This change of f to v is not known before the eleventh century. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find it taking place in the dative case of nouns, wif (nom.), wive (dative), and

in the plural of adjectives def (sing.) deve (pl.) deaf. It seems that f between two vowels was pronounced as v. Cp. O.E. heafod, E.E. heved, M.E. heed, head, &c.

Pure English words in -ff, rf, and all borrowed words in -f, ferm their plurals in s, as cliffs, dwarfs, hoofs, briefs, proofs.

Nouns ending in y not preceded by a vowel retain the older spelling in the plural, as fly, flies, city, cities.

In M.E. the singular ended in -ie, or ye, as, flie, citie.

Y remains unchanged if it is preceded by another vowel, and the plural is regularly formed, as, boys, plays.

Remains of older Plural Formations.

91. Plural formed by Vowel Change. The chief changes are—

Plural.

Sing.

a. e. OO. ee. i. ou. Plural. Sing. man, O.E. man. men, O.E. men. feet, O.E. fêt. foot, O.E. fôt. goose, O.E. gôs. geese, O.E. gês. tooth, O.E. tôth. teeth, O.E. têth. mice, O.E. mŷs. mouse, O.E. mûs. louse, O.E. lûs. lice, O. E. lŷs. ki(-ne), O. E. cŷ. cow, O.E. cu.

In these words the primitive suffix s has been lost together with a preceding vowel, which modified the root vowel. Thus the old pl. of boc (a book) was lec, which stands for a more primitive bocis. This change of vowel was not limited to the plural, but took place in the dative of all these words, as, boc (nom.) bec (dative).

Breeches, breeks, had for its oldest plural brêc, M.E. breek, formed by vowel change from brêc. Byrig,

fyrig, tyrf, were once the plurals of borough (O.E. burh), furrow (O.E. furh), turf (O.E. turf).

92. Plurals in -en (O.E. -an), as ox, oxen. Hosen (English Bible), shoon (Shakespeare), are more or less obsolete. Spenser has eyen (eyes), and foen (foes). In a work written about 1420 we find been (bees), een (eyes), fleen (flies), pesen (peas), toon (toes).

In the oldest English, plurals in -en were exceedingly common; in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries they became still more numerous because the older plurals in -a, -u, became first -e, and then -en.

In the fourteenth century they became of less frequent occurrence, and in the northern dialects only eyen, oxen, and hosen were in common use.

Children, brethren, and kine did not originally form their plurals in -en (-n).

Children.—The oldest plural was cild-r-u, which became (i) child-r-e (and childer)²; (ii) child-r-en (and childern).

"The childer are pretty childer."

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, The Knight
of the Burning Pestle, Act. 1, Sc. 2.

In M.E. we find calvr-en (calves), eyr-en (eggs), and lambr-en (lambs): the last two are found as late as 1420.

"Late lamber" = late lambs.

PALLADIUS' Husbondrie, p. 145, 1. 154.

Brethren was (1) brothr-u, (2) brothr-e, brethr-e (brether), (3) brothren, brethren.

² The E.E. -re became M.E. -er. Cp. alre = aller, (of all).

¹ For proof of this, see O.E. Hom. first series, pp. xxvii.—xxxii.; second series, p. xiv.; Ayenbite of Inwyt, pp. xi-xxv.

[Chap.

The old brether is found very late. "These be my mother, brether, and sisters" (Bishop Pilkington, died 1575). Brethers occurs in the Romance of Partenav.

The e in brethren comes from the dative brêther.

In E.E. we find dehtren, in M.E. dester, originally dohtru; the dative singular was dêhter.

Kine (M.E. kin, ken) is a double plural. See § 91, p. 72.

> " Fat and fair ky." Cursor Mundi, p. 259, 1. 4566.

Kine has had a collective sense (like pease and T.E. hose), ever since the sixteenth century.

" Kine or oxen."

FITZHERBERT'S Husbondrie, A.D. 1598.

93. Some words, originally neuter, take no plural sign, as in the oldest English: deer, sheep, swine, neat.

These words have acquired a collective sense, cp. the use of fish, fowl, fruit, &c., gross, fathom, foot, &c.

94. Substantives having two Plural forms, with different meanings.

Brothers (by blood); brethren (of an order or community).

Cloths (sorts of cloth); clothes (garments, clothing).

Dies (a stamp for coining); dice (for gaming).

Pennies (a number of separate coins); pence (collective).

Pennies = O.E. penegas, (E.E., M.E. pennyes, pans, pens), without any distinction of meaning. Pence, compounded with a numeral as the name of a separate piece of money, is regarded as singular and takes a plural, as, two sixpences. But this is a comparatively modern usage.

"A hundred pieces of vi pence."

The Book of Princes, p. 164.

The forms pence, mice, &c. show that the O.E. s had only the sharp sound in *mouse* and not the flat sound in *pens*.

Peas (taken individually, the plural of pea), pease (taken collectively).

Pease O.E. pisa (pl. pesen), is the correct form.

" Pease are an excellent seede."

FITZHERBERT'S Husbondrie, p. 15.

In M.E. we find the plurals pesen and peses. The s in pease belongs to the root (Cp. Lat. pisum) and is no sign of the plural, but this was lost sight of when pea was coined, making its plural peas.

"A red berry as big as a pease."

GERARDE'S Herbal, p. 53.

"Benes, peses."-PALLADIUS' Husbondrie, p. 149, l. 8.

When two forms of a word occur, they must either get different meanings and so be utilised, or else one of them must drop out of use. Cp. morrow and morning, latest and last, &c.

95. False Plurals.

The s in alms, riches, eaves, is not a sign of the plural any more than it is in *largess*, *lachess*, &c. These words are however treated as plural, although singular in form.

Alms is a curtailed form of the O.E. almesse, pl. almessen (M.E. almesse, almes, T.E. almous; pl. almessen, almesses). Cp. alms-deed;

" Angels desire an alms.

MASSINGER, The Virg. Mart. iv. 3. See Acts iii. 3.

Riches.—M.E. richesse, pl. richesses, O.F. richesse, Fr. richesse.

"Yet all the riches in the world that is riseth of the ground by God's sending."

"Yet is not this riches of thy getting."

The Four Elements, in Old Eng. Plays, ed. Hazlitt, p. 8.

Eaves = O.E. yfes, efese, margin, edge; (M.E. eves, ovis; pl. eveses); pl. efesen (cp. T.E. esen-droppers).

"Ysekeles in eveses."

Piers Plowman, B. p. 315.

96. Plural Forms treated as Singulars.

Some plural forms are frequently treated as singulars; as, amends, bellows, gallows, means, news, odds, pains, shambles, tidings, wages, thanks, small-pox (= small-pock-s; cp. pock-mark).

"A little amends."

Spectator; Piers Plowman, B. p. 338.

"A gallows."-Esther, V. 14.

"The bellows blows."

SHAKESPEARE, Pericles, 1. 2.

"A means," - Winter's Tale, IV.3.

"By this means;" "this news."

Measure for Measure, III. 2.

"A fearful odds."-King Henry IV., Part III.

"That tidings."-Julius Casar, IV. 3.

"A shambles."-WHITLOCK, p. 97.

" A thanks."

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, vol. 1. p. 5.

"The small-pocke."-A. BOORDE.

The singulars amend, gallow, mean, pain, tiding, wage, thank, are found in older writers.

97. Nouns used only in the Plural.

(1) These are the names of things that consist of more than one part, or form a pair.

- a. Parts of the body, and bodily ailments.—Lights, lungs, intestines, &c.; measels, mumps, staggers, yellows (the jaundice).
- b. Articles of dress.—Drawers, trowsers, breeches, mittens, &c.
- c. Tools, instruments, &c.—Scissors, shears, tongs, scales, &c.

(2) The names of things considered in the mass or

aggregate.—Ashes, embers, lees, molasses, &c.

98. Some Nouns change their meaning in the Plural; as, beef, beeves; copper, coppers; spectacle, spectacles, &c.

99. Foreign Plurals.

Foreign words, when naturalized, form their plural in the ordinary English way, as, *indexes*, *memorandums*, *automatons*, *focuses*, *beaus*, &c. Others, imperfectly naturalized, still retain their foreign plural.

	Sing.	Plural
(I) Latin.	formula	formulæ
	datum	data
	radius	radii
	species	species
(2) Greek.	axis	axes
	phenomenon	phenomena
(3) Romance.	monsieur	messieurs
	bandit	banditti
(4) Hebrew.	cherub	cherubim
	seraph	seraphim

Some of these have two plurals with different meanings: as, indexes and indices; geniuses and genii; cherubs and cherubim.

Acoustics, analytics, ethics, optics, politics, were originally adjectives. We say logic, but logics is still used at the Irish Universities.

100. Plural of Compounds.

In compounds the plural is formed by s, as, black-birds, paymasters. When the adjective (after the French idiom) is the last part of a compound, the sign of the plural is added to the noun, attorneys-general, courts-martial, knights-errant, &c.; cp. the prepositional compounds, sons-in-law, lookers-on. In a few titles the last usually takes the plural sign, as major-generals, lord-lieutenants. A few others have both terms in the plural, knights-templars, lords-justices, lords-appellants.

We say master-bakers but Robert of Brunne has

masters mareschals.

Compounds in -full were once strictly adjectival (cp. baleful, &c.), and took no plural.

"Three sponefull of vinger."
A. BOORDE.

" A potful hony."

PALLADIUS' Husbondrie, p. 95, l. 968.

"Syx hondred syppuol kny3tes."

ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, l. 3523.

"Thre schipful of kny3tes."

Ib. 1. 2418.

III.-CASE.

noun) takes, to mark its relations to other words in a sentence, are called Cases.

The moveable or variable suffixes that express these relations are called *case-endings*.

Case means a falling. The nominative was considered by the old grammarians as the upright form, from which the other forms were fallings off, or declinations (Cp. the term declension). The Romans applied the term case to the nominative (casus rectus); not so the Greeks, from whom the idea was borrowed.

The oldest English had six cases: Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, and Instrumental.

In Modern English we have the subject-noun or Nominative case, the object-noun or Objective case, and the Possessive case. The Nominative and Objective case of nouns have the same form, and both are without case-endings. The Objective includes the Accusative or direct object of a transitive verb, and the impersonal object or Dative case, generally expressed by the noun with the preposition to or for before it. It is sometimes called the Indirect object.

The true Dative (of nouns and pronouns) is seen in such expressions as, he bought his brother a farm; I made me great works; woe worth the day; woe is me; me-thinks, me-seems, &c. The infinitive of purpose is a dative in "Their feet make haste to shed blood"

We have preserved the O.E. genitive -s, but all other endings have gone; e for the dative singular, and um for the plural have disappeared.

In the thirteenth century a final e represented both the singular and plural dative. The loss of this final e in the fourteenth century, left the dative and accusative undistinguished in form from the nominative.

Possessive Case.

102. The Possessive case, unlike the Nominative and Objective, is marked by a distinct form. Our possessive is the representative of the older genitive,

but we can see how much its force is weakened when we find as late as 1420 such expressions as strengthes qualitee (the quality of strength), cannys knottes (the knots of cane), vynes rootes (roots of vines).

In the oldest English there were various declensions, as in Greek and Latin, and different genitive suffixes for the singular and the plural.

The suffixes for the singular in the first period were -es, smith-es (smith's), -an, steorr-an (star's) -e, rod-e (rood's) -a, sun-a (son's).

For the plural they were -a, as, smith-a, rod-a, sun-a; -ena,

as, steorr-ena.

In the thirteenth century the suffixes of the genitive in the singular were -es and -e; in the plural -ene (-en), -e, and

the modern form -es which often replaced the others.

In the fourteenth century -es (-s) is the ordinary suffix for singular and plural. The suffix -en, -ene (gen. pl.) is found as late as 1387; wycchen tonges (Trevisa, 11. p. 187) = tongues of witches. See extract from Trevisa on p. 95.

103. The O.E. suffix es was at first limited to the singular of certain masculine and neuter nouns, but was afterward extended to the feminine.

The expression *lady-day* is the last relic of the old mode of forming the genitive feminine. Fabyan (A.D. 1516) has *Mary Mawdelayne day*, (Chronicle, p. 488).

This ending -es (-us, -ys, -is) made a distinct syllable in the older stages of the language.

"And by the popës mediacioun."

CHAUCER, Man of Lawes Tale, 1. 234.

"And cristendom of prestës handës fonge."

16. 1. 377

"The nightës char (car) the stars about doth bring."

LORD SURREY.

"Larger than the moones sphere."
SHAKESPEARE, Midsum, Night's Dream, 11. 1

Formation of the Possessive Case.

104. The Possessive case (singular and plural) is formed in the written language by the suffix -s. In the *spoken* language it has the same phonetic modifications as the plural -s. (See § 90, p. 71, § 63, p. 45).

The apostrophe in the singular marks the elison of the e of the old -es.

The general use of the apostrophe in the singular is not found much before the end of the seventeenth century. It was probably employed to distinguish the possessive case from the plural number. Its use may have been established from a false theory of the origin of the suffix -s, which prevailed from Ben Jonson's to Addison's time, namely, that it was a contraction of his, hence such expressions as:—

"For Jesus Christ his sake."-Prayer Book.

"The emblem is Camerarius his" = (Camerarius's).

WHITLOCK, p. 52.

We find this corruption towards the close of the fourteenth century. Trevisa has "egle hys nest" = eagle's nest.

-is, another form of -es was sometimes written apart from its noun, and hence perhaps the confusion of his with -is, or -es.

In the thirteenth century we find his for -is (-es) intentionally used after proper names.

Nouns forming their plural by vowel change, or by the suffix -n, take the possessive sign after the plural; as, men's, oxen's, children's.

Nouns forming their plurals in -s were thought to be without the case-sign; hence in writing the possessive came to be marked by the apostrophe, as boys'.

When a singular noun ends in an s sound, the possessive sign is dropped, and the apostrophe (often

¹ This came about in the seventeenth century, through the notion that the s in boys was the sign of the plural number, and not of the possessive case.

omitted) marks its absence; as, for justice sake, for conscience' sake, your highness' love, &c.

In foreign proper names (of two or more syllables) ending in s, the possessive is unchanged. Cp. Moses' law, Thetis' wrath, Olympus' top.

In common English names we generally sound an additional syllable; as Fames's (pronounced Fâmz-ez).
"Peersses bernes;" "Peersses wyf."

Piers Plowman, C. p. 148.

105. In compounds the possessive suffix is added to the last term, the son-in-law's house, William-the-Conqueror's reign.

Sometimes we find the principal substantive inflected as in the older stages.

"For his grace's sake the cardinal."-FORD.

"Constance the Kynges sister of France"

=The King of France's sister. - FABYAN.

" Eadwardes kynges leave"

=King Edward's leave.

"On Williames daye the yonger Kynges"

= On King William the younger's day .- O.E. Miscell. p. 145.

" Saberhtes death east seaxna cyninges"

= The death of Sæberht, king of the East Saxons.—Bed. ii. 5.

The Case absolute.

106. In the oldest period the dative was the absolute case. About the middle of the fourteenth century the nominative began to replace it. Pecock (A.D. 1449) has a few instances of the dative: "Him it witing and not weerning," = he knowing it and not forbidding it (II. 325). Milton occasionally imitates the Latin construction, as "him destroyed." In the use of the passive participle we have introduced being, as, "this being done," which was in the sixteenth century, "this done."

107. Declension of the Old English Noun.

I .- MASCULINE AND NEUTER NOUNS FORMING THE GENITIVE IN -es.

wulf, wolf : scip, ship : word, word,

Singular.

M	asculine,	Ne	uter.
Nom. }	wulf	scip	word
Gen.	wulf-es	scip-es	word-es
Dat.	wulf-e	scip-e	word-e
Acc.	wulf	scip	word
Inst.	wulf-ê	scip-ê	word-ê
		Flural.	
Nom.)	10	1 .	

	-	t terrut.	
Nom. } Voc. }	wulf-as	scip-u	word
Gen.	wulf-a	scip-a	word-a
Dat.	wulf-um	scip-um	word-um
Acc.	wulf-as	scip-u	word
Inst.	wulf-um	scip-um	word-um
		- 44.5	

II .- FEMININE NOUNS FORMING THE GENITIVE IN -e. gifu, gift; dæd, deed.

Singular,

Nom. Voc.	gif-u		dæd
Gen.	gif-e		dæd-e
Dat.	gif-e		dæd-e
Acc.	gif-e		dæd (dæd-e)
Inst.	gif-ê	(dæd-ê
Acc.	gif-e		dæd (dæd-e)

Plural.

Nom. \ Voc. \	gif-a	dæd-a, dæd-e
Gen.	gif-a (gif-ena)	dæd-a
Dat.	gif-um	dæd-um
Acc.	gif-a	dæd-a, dæd-e

Inst.

gif-um

dæd-um

III.-STEMS IN -n.

steorr-a,	star;	tung-e,	tongue	;	eâg-e,	eye.
-----------	-------	---------	--------	---	--------	------

Sing.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. \	steorr-a	tung-e	eâg-e
Gen.	steorr an	tung-an	eâg-an
Dat. Inst	steorr-an	tung-an	eâg-an
Acc.	steorr-an	tung-an	eâg-e

PI	ura	ıl.
	N	om

Voc.	steorr-an	tung-an	eâg-an
Gen.	steorr-ena	tung-ena	eâg-ena
Dat. } Inst. }	steorr-um	tung-um	eâg-um
Acc.	steorr-an	tung-an	eâg-an

IV.—STEMS IN -n. brôthor, brother.

S	ingular.		Plural.
Nom. Acc.	brôthor	Nom. Acc.	brôthr-u, brôthor
Gen.	brôthor	Gen.	brôthr-a
Dat. } Inst. }	brêthor	Dat. } Inst. }	brothr-um

108. Declension of Nouns in the thirteenth century:-

I .- wulf, wolf; scip, ship; word, word.

	Masc.	Neut.	
Nom. Voc.	wulf	scip, schip	word
Gen.	wulu-es (wulf-es)	scip-es	word-es
Dat.	wulu-e (wulf-e)	scip-e (scip-en)	word-e
Acc.	wulf	scip	word

Plural.

Nom. Acc. Voc. wulu-es (wulf-es)

Gen. wulu-e (wulu-en, wulu-ene)
Dat. wulu-e (wulu-es, wulu-en)

Neut.

Nom. Acc. Voc. scip-e (scip-en, scip-es) word, (word-es)
Gen. scip-e (scip-ene, scip-es) word-e (word-es)
Dat. scip-e (scip-en, scip-es) word, (word-es)

II.—Hand (hond), hand; dede, deed.

Singular.

	em.	Fem.
Nom. Acc. Voc.	ded-e	hond, hand
Gen.	ded-e	hond-e
Dat.	ded-e	hond-e

Plural.

Nom. Acc.	ded-e (-en, -es)	hond-e (-en, -es)
Gen.	ded-e (-es)	hond-e (-es)
Dat.	ded-en (-e,-es)	hond-en (-e, -es)

III.—Sterr-e, star; tunge, tongue; eze, (eye).

Singular.

	_	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. sterr-e	tung-e	e3-e
Gen. sterr-e(-en,-es)	tung-e (-es)	e3-e (-es)
Dat. sterr-e (-en)	tung-e (-en)	e3≪e (-en)
Acc. sterr-e (-en)	tung-e (-en)	e3-e
	-Plural.	
Nom)		1

Nom. Voc.	sterr-en(-e,-es.	tung-en (-e, -es)	e3-en (-es)
	sterr-ene	tung-ene	e3-ene
Dat.	sterr-en (-e)	tung-en (-e)	e3-en (-e)
Acc.	sterr-en(-e,-es)	tung-en (-e, -es)	e3-en (-es)

IV.—The words fæder (fader), brother, suster, moder, do3ter, (dohter), in the singular take no genitive inflexion. In the dative we find sometimes a final -e. In the plural we find nominatives in -es, -en, -e; as faderes, brotheres (brothers), dohtres, sostres; brotheren, brethren, dohtren, deht en, sustren, modren; brothre, dohtere, &c.

In the thirteenth century the genitive plural has sometimes

the suffix -ene (-en), but more often -es.

The dative plural ends in -en, -e and sometimes in -es.

In the fourteenth century there is but little trace of the dative

singular or plural.

The nominative plural of nouns ends in -es (-is, -ys, -us), without respect to gender, though many plurals in -en are found.

The genitive singular ends in -es (-is, -us, -ys). Some feminines keep up the old genitive form in -e.

The genitive plural for the-most part is like the nominative plural. We have still a trace of the old genitive plural -ene, (-en). See § 102, p. 80.

CHAPTER VIII.

Adjectives.

109. The English adjective has lost all the older inflexions of *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

In Chaucer's time, and a little later, we find (t) a final e used to mark the plural, as, "the *smalë* fowles;" (2) a final e to denote the definite adjective, "the *yongë* sonne," "his *halfë* cours."

Cp. "And quhen sche walkit had a lytill thrawe
Under the suctë grenë bewis bent,
Hir fairë, freschë face as quhite as any snawe
Sche turnyt has, and furth her wayis went."

JAMES I. OF SCOTLAND, The Kingis Quhair.

about 1423.

In the phrase "in the olden time," we have perhaps a trace of the definite declension.

The word ones does duty for an inflexional e in the plural, as M.E, "these tweyne olde" = these two old ones.

plural regularly, as wantons, calms, shallows. In the fourteenth century only Norman-French adjectives used substantively could be thus inflected, as, viles, preciouses; native words formed their plural by

This is a Scottish imitation of Chaucer.

adding the final e, as suete (sweets), soure (sours). In the sixteenth century we find this new method extended to English words, as yonges = young ones (L. Andrewe, in Babees Book, p. 231).

When an adjective of Norman-French origin qualified a noun, it often formed its plural by adding s. Chaucer has cosins germains as well as capitalles lettres (Astrolabe, p. 16). Traces of this construction are found in Tudor English.

peare, 2 King Henry VI. 1. 1), we have one very late instance of the old genitive plural suffix -er. Alder = M.E. aller, E.E. alre, O.E. al-ra, the gen. pl. of all.

"Now Jesu Christ be your alder speed."

(Everyman; published early in the reign of
Henry VIII. See old English Plays, ed.
Hazlitt, p. 1. 135).

" Adam owre aller fader."

Piers Plowman, B. p. 298.

" Sweetest alre thinge."

O.E. Miscell. p. 166.

Acc.

blind-e

blind-u

112. Declension of the O.E. Adjective.

STRONG OR INDEFINITE DECLENSION.

		Singular.	
NT	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. Voc.	blind	blind	blind
Gen.	blind-es	blind-re	blind-es
Dat.	blind-um	blind-re	blind-um
Acc.	blind-ne	blind-e	blind
Inst.	blind-ê	blind-re	blind-e
		Plural.	
Nom. Voc.	blind-e	blind-e	blind-u
Gen.	blind-ra	blind-ra	blind-ra
Dat.	blind-um	blind-um	blind-um

blind-e WEAK OR DEFINITE DECLENSION. Cinama Zana

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	blind-a	blind-e	blind-e
Gen.) Dat.) Acc.	blind-an	blind-an	blind-an
Acc.	blind-an	blind-an	blind-en

Plural.

Masc., Fem., Neut., Nom. blind-an Voc.

Acc. blind-ena Gen. Dat. blind-um

113. In the thirteenth century we find the following forms of the strong declension.

		Singular.	
27	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. Voc.	blind	blind-e	blind
Gen.	blind-es	blind-re (-e)	blind-es
Dat.	blind-e (-en)	blind-re (-e)	blind-e
Acc.	blind-ne (-e)	blind-e	blind

Plural for all genders :-

Nom. blind-e Voc. Gen. blind-ere (-re, -e) blind-en (-e) Dat. blind-e Acc.

The strong declension has for the most part all its cases in -e, sometimes its oblique cases in -en; and throughout the plural -e (or -en).

Sometimes the definite form takes the inflexions of the indefinite declension.

In the fourteenth century we find a final e used to mark (1) the plural, and (2) the definite form and vocative case of the adjective. (See § 109, p. 87).

Comparison of Adjectives.

114. Comparison is that change of form which the adjective undergoes to denote degrees of quantity or quality. Adverbs that have sprung from adjectives may be compared.

There are three degrees of comparison, the positive or simple form of the adjective, the comparative formed by adding -er to the positive, the

superlative by adding -est to the positive.

This rule applies (1) to all words of one syllable. (2) to some words of two syllables, especially those with the accent on the last syllable.

Orthographical changes :-

(1) When the positive ends in -e, the comparison is formed by r and -st. (2) Final y following a consonant is changed to i (happy, happier, happiest). (3) A final consonant after a short vowel is doubled, as, wet, wetter, wettest; cruel, crueller, cruellest; cheerful, cheerfuller, cheerfullest.

Adjectives of more than two syllables, and most adjectives of two syllables are compared by more and most.

The words more and most are pure English words, but the use of them to express comparison is due to Norman-French influence. This mode of comparison came into use towards the end of the thirteenth century, and was frequently employed by the writers of the fourteenth century.

But even at this time, adjectives of any number of syllables might be compared by -er and -est. The writers of the Elizabethan period paid very little regard to the length of the adjective.

"The delectablest lusty sight and movingest object me thought it was,"—NASH'S Lenten Stuff, p. 9, ed. 1871.

Middle and Modern English. Some of these double forms arose out of an attempt to strengthen the comparison, as *more kinder*, *most straitest*. Others arose through the comparative degree of some irregular forms being mistaken for the positive.

"The lesser lights."-Gen. i. 16.

" More better." - Temp. i. 2.

"The worser of the twain." - WARNER.

" Lesse gifts and lesser gaines I weigh them not."

HALL'S Satyres, Book II. 2.

Some numerals, pronominal words, prepositions, &c., have a comparative suffix, -ther (-ter), as o-ther, whe-ther, af-ter, un-der.

Traces of an old superlative m are to be found in form-er and for-m-ost. (See § 117, p. 96.)

116. Irregular Comparisons.

I. WITH VOWEL CHANGE IN THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.

Old, elder, eldest (O.E. eald, ald; yldra, eldra; yldest, eldest).

Elder and eldest are archaic, and are replaced

by the more recent forms, older and oldest.

Cp. O.E. lang, lengra, lengest; strang, strengra, strengest. This change is caused by the original vowel before the suffix -s and -st.

Nigh, nigher, nighest, (next).

Near, nearer, nearest.

O.E. neâh, neh; nyra, nearra; neâhst, nêhst,

M.E. negh, nigh; nerre, nere, nerrer; neghest, neyest, next, nest.

The true representatives of the O.E. forms are nigh, near, (nigher), next.

Near is a comparative form, nearer is a double comparative.

"The Knyst asked leeve to ryde by an other way that was nere (= nearer)."—Gest. Rom., p. 34.

"You're early up, pray God it be the near."

GREEN'S Friar Bacon. See Macbeth II., 4.

Next is a contracted form: h + s = k + s = x. Cp. M. f., hext = highest; coxcomb = cock's comb.

Late, latter, last.

Late, later, latest.

O.E. læt (late), lator, latost, lætemest. In the thirteenth century we find late, lattre, lattst (latst).

The distinction between latter and later, latest and last, is quite a modern one.

"The sea gravel is lattest for to drie, And lattest may thou therwith edifie."

1420 PALLADIUS, p. 14, ll. 363-4.

Last arises by assimilation out of lat-st. Cp. best = O.E. bet-st; gospel = godspel.

(Rathe,) rather, (rathest). O.E. hræth, hræthra (hrethra), hrathost, Rathe in Milton means early, as,

"The rathe primrose."-Lycidas.

"The rather born lambs."-SPENSER.

"Late and rathe."-Piers Plowman B. p. 132. "The rather (previous) day."-Trevisa III. p. 145.

"The rathest riping grapes."-PALLADIUS, p. 66.

II. FROM OBSOLETE ROOTS.

Good, better, best.

O.E. god, betera, (betra,) betest, betst.

The positive of better is bat = good, which root is found in O.E. betan, 'to make good,' 'amend;' and boot, in 'to boot.'

For vowel change in better see elder; for best see last.

Bad Evil worse, worst.

O.E. yfel, wyrsa, wyrrest, wyrst.

Wor-se, wor-st, are formed from the root weer, bad.

The -se = -re (-er). Cp. less, O.E. las-se.

In the phrase "the weaker had the wer" (Harding), we have the remnant of the Danish værre. Spenser uses war = worse.

"Was neuer warre o moder born."

Cursor Mundi, p. 68, C.

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"Was neuer worre of moder borne,"-Ib. F.

Little, less, least.

O.E. lytel, læssa, læsest, læst.

The root of *less* and *least* is not the lit of 'little,' but las, 'infirm.' Cp. Goth. *lasiws*, 'weak.' The vowel-change is like that in *better*.

Much, more, most.

O.E. micel, mâra, mæst.

Much is from mycel, through the forms michel, muchel, mochel.

Mo-re contains the root mah, or magh, to be great. Cp. mai-n, O.E. mæg-en.

O.E. micel, M.E. muchel, muche, moche = great, large.

"He seide it was not half mech inow."-CAFGRAVE.

"A much berd" = a great beard.

Sir G. and the G. Knist p. I.

Mo (moe), a shortened form of more, is used by Elizabethan writers for more. Gill makes mo the comparative of many; more the comparative of much. The Lowland Scotch has a similar distinction.

III. FROM ADVERBIAL ROOTS OF TIME AND PLACE.

Far, farther, farthest.

O.E. feor, fyrra, fyrrest; M.E. fer, ferre, (ferrer,) ferrest.

Farther. The correct comparative is farrer = M. E. ferrer.

" pan mon (must) he gyf light
Als fer als pe some dose and ferrer."

HAMPOLE, P. of C. p. 246.

Far (M.E. ferre) = 'farther,' occurs in Winter's Tale, iv. 4.

The th in farther has crept in from false analogy with further, M.E. forther, ferther.

Furth-er (O.E. further, superlative furthmest), is

the comparative of forth.

"He went him forth and forther soght."—C. Mundi, C. l. 4107.

"He went forth and further so3t."—Ib. T.

"He went forth and ferder soght."-Ib. G.

E-re, erst. The root of e-re is the adverb \hat{a} , 'ever.'

In O.E. we find se arra = the former, se aftera (the after) = the latter.

In the thirteenth century we find *erure*, *erore* = former. O.E. *Misc.*, p. 173.

Af-ter, latter, second (compare after-thought), is from af = of, off.

Fir-st is the superlative of fore. See § 117, p. 96.

For change of vowel see § 83, p. 63; § 91, p. 72.

Hind-er, from hind, as in behind. Hinderest occurs in Chaucer.

Inn-er, from in. In the thirteenth century we find innerest.

Neth-er, from neath in beneath. Nethereste is used by Chaucer (Astrolabe, p. 4).

Over is from the root ove (O.E. ufe = up), in above. Wickliffe has overere (a double comparative).

As late as the seventeenth century over and upper are opposed to nether.

"The upper part . . . shutteth close upon the nether."-

Holland's Pliny, p. 241.

"Also as it is in the parties of the grete worlde that they beeth so i-ordeyned and isette, that the over-meste of the nether kynde touche the nether-meste of the over kynde, as oistres and schellefisch . . . in bestene kind."—Trevisa II., p. 181.

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Upp-er, from up. Upperest and overest are found in the fourteenth century.

Utt-er, out-er, from out (O.E. ut).

117. Superlatives in m.

The O.E. for-ma (cp. Lat. pri-mu-s) = 'first,' from the root fore, survives in for-m-er (comparative form with superlative sense), and for-m-ost.

"The forme yere."-PALLADIUS, p. 71, l. 291.

"The formast barn that sco him bare."-C. Mundi, C. p. 68.

"The first child that ever scho bare."-Ib. G.

"Of alle oure former fadris that evere were or aren."-Babees Book, p. 47.

The suffix -most (O.E. m-est), contains the superlative endings -m and -est, as in in-m-ost, ut-m-ost, up-m-ost, hind-m-ost, &c.

Further-more (forther-over in Chaucer), is simply a compound like ever-more.

For the Indefinite Article see Numerals, One. For the Definite Article see Demonstrative Pronouns.

NUMERALS.

118. Numerals may be considered under the three following divisions, Cardinal, Ordinal, and Indefinite Numerals.

I.-Cardinals.

One = O.E. an, M.E. an, a, on, oon, o, oo.

The Indefinite Article an preserves the original form of the numeral. The n falls off before a consonant, and becomes a. (Cp. "mine and my.") A = one in "all of a size," &c.

"Alle salle that be ane in company,
And als a saule and a body."

HAMPOLE'S P. of C., p. 228.

An in seventeenth century writers is used before words beginning with h.

"Yea, I may say of Gardiner, that he had an head, if not an hand, in the death of every eminent Protestant."—
FULLER, Church History, ed. 1845, iv. p. 183.

In the phrase "such an one," one must have had its M.E. pronunciation oon.

None and No are the negatives of an and a. Two, twain (O.E. twâ, twegen).
Three (O.E. thrê, thrêo).

The root is thri or thar, 'to go beyond,' 'cross.' Cp. Lat. tres and trans.

Four (O.E. feôwer, fether; cp. Lat. quatuor) has lost a th.

Five (O.E. fif), has lost a nasal. Cp. Lat. quinque, Gr. πεντε.

Nine (O.E. nigon, M.E. neghen).

A g representing an older v has been lost. Cp. Lat. novem.

Ten (O.E. tŷn, tên).

Ten has lost an h or g. Cp. Gothic taihun, Lat. decem. The original form therefore was tehen, or tegen. Cp. twenty (O.E. twen-tig).

Eleven [O.E. endlif (endleof), ællefne (ændlefene)]. e = en = one; lev = lif (perhaps) = ten.

Twelve (O.E. twelf).

twe = twa = two; lve = lif = ten.

Sometimes 1 = t, and f = g, hence lif = tig, (in O.E. twentig = treen-ty.)

Some philologists say that lif is from O.E. læfan. Goth. laibjan, to leave; O.E. laf, Goth. laiba, a remnant. Hence eleven = one over ten; twelve = two over ten.

The numbers from 13 to 19 are formed by the suffix -teen (O.E. $t\hat{y}ne$) = ten. Those from 20 to 90 are formed by suffixing ty (O.E. tig) = ten.

Hund-red. In O.E. we find hund, and hund-

teôntig = 100. Hund signified ten originally.

Hundred and thousand are substantives (originally neuter).

119. Distributives express how many at a time, as, one by one, one and one, by twos, two each. &c.

By twos. In O.E. the dative bi twam would be used.

In the fourteenth century we find be hundredes &c. Chaucer. Astrolabe, pp. 11, 19, has by on, by two, &c. By and by = one by one; on by on is used by Lydgate.

120. In Multiplicatives the cardinal number is placed before the greater numeral, as eight hundred.

They may be expressed (1) by the English suffix -fold, as two-fold. Cp. O.E. an-fald = simple; (2) by the Romance suffix -ple (-ble), double (duple), treble (triple).

In M.E. we find -double used as a suffix instead of -fold.

(3) by the word times, as "three times one are three;" (4) by the adverbial form, as, "twice two," "thrice four."

Both O.E. begen (masc.), ba (neut.). Cp. O.E. treiegen, two.

In the thirteenth century we find the neuter form (bey, ba, bo, boo) more common than the masculine beyn.

Both contains the root bo (or ba), and the suffix -th.

In O.E. we find ba joined to twa (two), as bâtwâ, butwa, butu. Cp. our "both two."

In the thirteenth century we find a plural bathen, or bothen, and a genitive plural bei-re; and in the fourteenth century bother and bothers are used as genitives.

II. Ordinals.

121. The Ordinals, except first and second, are formed from the cardinal numbers by the suffix -th, as four-th, fif-th, six-th, &c.

In O.E. fifth, sixth, and twelfth, were fifta, sixta, and twelfta. In O.E. th had, probably, only the flat sound in bathe, and therefore could not follow a sharp mute.

Third = O.E. thridda, M.E. thridde.

In seventh, ninth, tenth, thirteenth, ... nineteenth, an n has crept in through Northern forms of Norse origin. Cp. tithe = tenth.

In eigh-th (O.E. eaht-otha), a t has disappeared.

First is the superlative of fore, see § 116, p. 95. Second, Fr. seconde, Lat. secundus, has replaced the O.E. other.

O.E. other = one of two; thæt ân = the first; thæt other = the second. In M.E. these became (I) that oon and that other, (2) the ton (toon, tone), and the tother.

"Tua pilers thai mad, o tile the tan, The tother it was o merbul stan."

C. Mundi, C. p. 96, ll. 1532-3.

"Two pileres thei made, of til that oon, That other was of marbul stoon."

Ib. T.

III. Indefinite Numerals.

122. All. O.E. eal, eall; Genitive plural alra, E.E. al-re, M.E. aller, alder, alther. See § 111, p. 88. In the Lowland Scotch dialects we find allers, cp. bothers, § 120, p. 99.

Many. O.E. manig, maneg, is another form of

the root magh in more. See § 116, p. 94.

In O.E. we have fela, feola (M.E. fele) = many.

Many (O.E. manigeo), a crowd, is a substantive in some expressions, as, "a great many."

"O thou fond many."
SHAKESPEARE, 2 Hen. IV. i. 3.

Few. O.E. feawa, fea; E.E. and M.E. fa, fo, fon, fone, feawe, few; O.E. lyt = few.

CHAPTER IX.

Pronouns.

123. The Pronouns are among the oldest parts of speech, and consequently have undergone much change, so that their original forms are greatly altered. Notwithstanding all this they have preserved more relics of the older inflexions than any other part of speech, as case-endings in hi-m, he-r, ou-r, &c.; suffixes marking gender in it, what, &c. They also illustrate the substitution of one demonstrative for another, see remarks on she, they, &c. p. 109. They show how neuter forms may take the place of the masculine and feminine, as in this, &c.; how one case may replace another, as in you for ye; how the singular may take the place of the plural, as in you for thou; how relative pronouns are lost and replaced by interrogatives; how new plurals replace older ones in others, selves; how impersonal pronouns are formed, as, somebody, &c.

124. When a pronoun stands alone, as the subject or object of a verb, it is said to be used substantively; when it modifies a noun it is said to be used adjectively. The Possessive, Demonstrative, Interrogative, Relative, and Indefinite Pronouns have often this double use

125. The classes of Pronouns are (1) Personal, (2) Demonstrative, (3) Interrogative, (4) Relative, (5) Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

I. Substantive.

126. The Personal Pronouns have no distinction of gender. There are two persons, the person who speaks, called the *first* person; the person spoken to, the *second* person.

The person or thing spoken of is sometimes called the *third* person (he, she, it). It is properly a demonstrative pronoun and is inflected like other old demonstratives for gender, as well as for number and case.

He = that man, she = that woman, it = that thing.

In E.E. the definite article or demonstrative the is used instead of he before that: "mihti Lauerd is the that Juliane on leveth" = mighty Lord is he that Juliana believes in.—(Jul. p. 65). "Ich am the that spec" = I am he that spake.—(Ib.)

127. THE PRONOUN OF THE FIRST PERSON.

Singular. Modern English. M.E. E.E. O.E. Nom. I I, ich, ik Ic, ich, Ih Tc Gen. min mîn Dat. me me me me Acc. me me me mec, me

Plural.

Nom.	we	we	we	we
Gen.			ure	ûser, ûre
Dat.	us	us, ous	us	ûs
Acc.	us	us, ous	us	ûsic, ûs

128. THE PRONOUN OF THE SECOND PERSON.

Singular.

Nom.	English.	thu,	thu thin the the	E.E.	O.E. thu thîn
Dat.	thee thee	the	the		the
Acc.	thee	the	the		thec, the

Plural.

Nom. ye, you Gen.		se eoure, ewr, sure	ge eow e r
Dat. you	sou, yhou, you,	eow, ew, eu	eow
Acc. you	30u, yhou, &c.	ew, ow, 3uw	eowic, eow

There was a dual of the first and second personal pronouns in O.E., which died out before A.D. 1300.

129. Remarks on the pronouns of the first and second person:—

(1) I. The guttural has fallen off, as in many words originally ending in c or ch. See § 37, p. 64.

Traces of an older form Ich, (which still lives on in the southwest of England), occur in old dramatic writers, as, chill = ich will (Shakespeare, King Lear). In early English we find icham, I am; ichabbe, I have; nullich, I will not; nefdich, I had not.

"Icham, a gentylman of much noble kynne, Though Iche be clad in a knauës skynne."

HAWES, Pastime of Pleasure.

" Ich am an old man."

A.D. 1565, AWDELEY, The Fraternity of Vacabondes, p. 8.

(2) Me (dative) is still in use before impersonal verbs, me-thinks, me-seems, &c.; after interjections,

"woe is me," "well is him;" to express the indirect object, to me or for me;

"Tell me the truth," "he plucked me ope his doublet."-SHAKESPEARE, Fulius Cæsar, I. 2.

In M.E. we find more frequent traces of the dative, especially with the adjectives leof (lief), loth, &c. and the verb to be.

"And lever me is be pore and trewe."

C. Mundi, T. 1. 4375.

[Chap.

Traces of this idiom occur in the dramatic writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The verb had often replaces the older were (subjunctive).

" Me had rather."-Rich. II. iii. 3.

= M.E. Me were lever.

" You were best take my coxcomb."

King Lear, I. iv.

" You had best."-Ib. II. p. 208.

" Him had ben lever to be syke."

FABYAN, p. 270.

" You were best hang yourself."

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, II. p. 305.

In the sixteenth century the nominative case replaces the dative. as, "thou wert better," &c. for "thee were better;" "we had best," = "us were best." Bacon uses "I think good," for "me thinks good."

" Better I were distract."

King Lear, iv. 7.

We no longer use mine, thine, ours, &c. as genitives, but only as possessive pronouns. In M.E. we find a trace of the genitive in such expressions as, "maugre myn" (owres &c.) = in spite of me; (us, &c.) "oure aller" = all of us, &c.

See ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, § 133.

(3) Thou has been replaced by you, except in the poetical and religious language.

From the fourteenth down to the seventeenth century, we find thou used to express (1) familiarity towards friends; (2) superiority towards inferiors; (3) contempt or anger towards strangers.

- "We maintain that thou from superiors to inferiors is proper, as a sign of command; from equals to equals is passable as a note of familiarity; but from inferiors to superiors, if proceeding from ignorance, hath a smack of clownishness; if from affectation, a tone of contempt."—FULLER.
- (4) Ye, although the true nominative, has been replaced by dative or objective you. In the English Bible, the older use of ye as nominative, and you as dative or objective, is always carefully observed.

"Ye have not chosen me, but I have chosen you."

John xv. 16.

In Sackville, Shakspeare, and Milton, we find ye (in an unaccented position) sometimes used instead of you, in the objective case.¹

"Vain pomp and glory of this world, I hate ye."

SHAKESPEARE, Henry VIII. iii. 2, 365.
"His wrath, which one day will destroy ye both."

MILTON, Paradise Lost, ii. 734.

130. THE PRONOUN OF THE THIRD PERSON.—SINGULAR.

Masculine.

	M.E. E.	E. O.E.
Nom. he he, h	a, a he, ha	he
Gen. his	his	his
Dat. him him	him	him
Acc. him him,	(hine) hine, him	his him hine

^{*} You does not appear as a nominative, in the written language before the sixteenth century. In the spoken language it was perhaps probably pronounced like ye, or the yea in yearn. Cp. thank ee = thank ye = thank you; look ee = look ye.

Feminine.

Modern English	M.E.	O.E.	E.E.
Nom. she	heo, sco	hi, heo, scæ	heo
Gen.	sche, she	hire, here	hire
Dat. her	hire, hir, here	hire, here	hire
Acc. her	hire (hi, heo)	hi, heo, hire	hi
		(hise, his)	

Neuter.

Nom.	it	hit (it)	hit (it)	hit
Gen.		hit (it) his (hit)	his	his
Dat.	it	him (hit, it)	him	him
Acc.	it	hit (it)	hit	hit

PLURAL.

Nom.	they	hii, thei, thai	hi, heo, thei,	hi (hig)
			thai	
Gen.			hire, heore, here,	hira (heora)
		thair, their	the33re	
Dat.	them	hem, hom, theim,	heom, hem, ham,	him (heom)
		thaim, tham	the33m	
Acc.	them	hem, theim,	hi, heo, heom,	hi (hig)
		tham	hem, the33m	
			(hise, his)	

131. Observations on the Pronoun of the Third Person:-

- (1) In Old English there was only one stem, hi, from which he, she, it, and their cases were formed. The modern declension contains three stems, hi, sa, tha.
- (2) He. In Middle English we find ha and a = he. Cp. "quoth a."

[&]quot;'Rah, tah, tah,' would a say; 'bounce,' would a say; and away again would a go; and again would a come." -Hen. IV. PART II. iii, 2. 303.

(3) Hi-m (dat.) contains a real dative suffix m.

Cp. who-m.

(4) Hi-m (acc.). The old accusative was hi-ne, which began to go out of use in the thirteenth century, and by Chaucer's time had wholly disappeared in the Midland dialect.

"Heo hine bitauhte knyhtes pat duden him muchele schonde:

þe knyhtes þet hine ledden bitauhten him þe rode."

-- They delivered him to knights that did to him great shame;

The knights that led him delivered to him the cross.

O.E. Miscell, p. 49.

- (5) She replaces the older heo, which lasted as late as τ387. It is an altered form of the Old English feminine definite article seo, or sio (Icelandic sú).
 - "Heo nuste hwat heo mende, heo wes of wytte poure."
 = She knew not what she meant, she was of wit poor.

 O.E. Miscell. p. 85.

(6) He-r (dat.) contains a dative (fem.) suffix -r, (-re).

He-r, (acc.) originally dative, has replaced the old accusative hi or heo.

"Heo cubeb hi well sone."

= She will show herself very soon.

O.E. Miscell. p. 118.

"He ber heo on his schuldre."

= He bore her on his shoulder.

Ib. p. 49.

(7) It has lost an initial h. The final t was originally a suffix of the neuter gender, as in that, what. Cp. Latin i-d, illu-d, istu-d, quo-d.

It is often employed in O.E. where we use there.

"It es na tung may tell."

C. Mundi, p. 84.

"It ben the deueles disoures."

Piers Plowman, B. vi. 56.

(8) It (dat.) has replaced the true form him.

(9) They is the old nominative plural of the definite article. It replaced the older form hi or heo in the beginning of the thirteenth century in the dialects of the North and North East of England, under the forms pei, pess, pai.

"Ic nele neuer be vorsake, and so hi seyden alle.

bo hi hedden al bis iherd heo were ful sori."

= I will never forsake thee, and so they said all;
When they had heard all this they were full sorry.

O.E. Miscell, p. 41.

(10) The-m (dat.) is the dative plural of the old definite article and replaces the demonstrative hem.

The-m (acc.) was originally a dative and replaced the older forms hi, heo, hem; the true accusative is they, O.E. thâ.

"So ha sente hi into his wynyarde."

= So he sent them into his vineyard.

O.E. Miscell. p. 33.

"And [he wule] makie heo unfere." = And he will make them unbold.

Ib. p. 75.

"And right anoon thay token here way to the court of Melibe, and token with hem some of here 'rewe frendes."— CHAUCER, ed. Morris, iii. p. 193.

In the dramatists, 'em is not a corruption of them, but of the older hem.

(11) The following table shows the origin of she, they, &c.:—

DEFINITE ARTICLE.—SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom.	Poss.	Dat.	Acc.
thâ	thâra	thâm	thâ
thev	their	them	- 1

Obs. The following examples show the demonstrative character of they = those (nom. and acc.).

" For they carles garre syke a dinne."

WARNER, Albion's England, p. 118.

"And tha bandes of fyre salle never slake."

= And those bonds of fire shall never slack.

HAMPOLE, P. of C. 1. 7177.

"But thai prophetis so thyn ar sawin."

= But those prophets are so thinly sown.

BARBOUR, The Bruce, iv. 685.

" For he had drede of thai thre men."

= For he had dread of those three men.

Ib. vii. 185.

" Thai thre tratouris he has slane."

=Those three traitors has he slain.

Ib. vii. 222.

^{&#}x27; In O.E. the was only used as an indeclinable relative. In E.E. the (masc.) and theo (fem.) were used as demonstrative pronouns instead of O.E. se and seo.

"Ane of thai That com for to sla the kyng."

= One of those that came to slay the king.

BARBOUR, The Bruce, vii. 212.

Tho is another form of tha and thei.

" po weore peos—
but weoren in pe pynen of helle."

= They were those
That were in the pains of hell.

O. E. Miscell. p. 232.

"Yf ye wille after this do to me so
As ye have done, ye shalle have alle tho." (them=coins)
OCCLEVE, De Reg. 166.

"And the that cannot (beat their husbands), they will never let
Their tongues cease.".....

Hawes, P. of Pl. p. 136.

II. Reflexive Pronouns.

132. The simple personal pronouns me, thee, &c. may be used reflexively, as, "I repent me," "get thee hence," "sit you down."

The word self is usually added to them.

Singular.—Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself.

Plural.—Ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

Self (O.E. silf), was at first declined as an adjective along with the personal pronouns; nom. ic silfa, gen. mîn silfes; dat. me silfum; acc. me silfne.

Between the nominative of the personal pronoun and the word silf, the dative case of the pronoun was inserted, as: ic me silf = I myself; thu the silf = thou thyself; he him silf = he himself; we us silfe = we ourselves; ye eow silfe = you yourselves;

hi him selfe = they themselves. So we could say God silf and God him silf.

These forms are emphatic rather than reflexive.

In the thirteenth century we find the *possessive* pronoun replacing the *dative*, as, *I mi self*, thu thi self, &c. instead of *I me self*, thu the self. Cp. himself, themselves, itself, oneself.

Probably self had already come to be considered a noun; it certainly was often so treated from the fourteenth century downwards:—

" As thi self likyth."

CHAUCER, Astrolabe, pt. I. sec. 21.

"Myself hath been the whip."

CHAUCER, C. T. 1. 5757.

"Thy manner is to muse and [to] devyse, So that sometime *myself* may carry me *Myself* knoweth not where; and I assure ye So hath *myself* done now."

HEYWOOD, The Play of the Wether.

Cp. the use of "myself," &c. for "I myself," &c.

When self was fully established as a noun, it dropped its old plural e, and took s, as ourselves, &c.

For some time it was without a plural, as ourself, themself, &c.

One's self, (or more properly oneself), is quite a modern form. In Elizabethan English we find a man's self = one's self.

In O.E., and (the nom. of an, one,) was used like self. In M.E., we find one used for self with the possessive pronoun, as, "be myne one," by myself (Morte Arthure, ed. Brock, p. 125) = "by me one."

An old meaning of self was same. Cp. "the self truth" (Becon), and "self-same."

"The same self time."

BALE'S Works, Park. Soc. p. 23.

"For other ruffians, as their fancies wrought, With self-same hand, self reasons, and self right, Would shark on you."

SIR T. MORE, ed. Shak. Soc. p. 27.

III. Adjective Pronouns.

133. The Adjective Pronouns, sometimes called Possessive Pronouns, were formed from the genitive case of the personal pronouns, and were declined like ordinary adjectives.

In modern English the possessive pronouns, though only used adjectively, are identical in form with the

old genitives of the personal pronouns.

Sing.—Mine, my; thine, thy; his, hers, its. Plural.—Our, ours; your, yours; their, theirs.

Mine, my; thine, thy. The original forms were mine and thine (O.E. mîn, thin). The final e is no inflexion, and only marks the length of the preceding vowel.

The -n in mine and thine is an old genitive suffix.

My and thy are formed from mine and thine by the loss of n, as no from none, a from an.

Mine and thine are occasionally used before a noun beginning with a vowel, or h; but this usage is confined to poetry and the *solemn* style. It is very common in the Bible, and in our old dramatists:—

"Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice."

Hamlet, 1. 3.

" Conduct me to mine host." - Macbeth, 1. 7.

Sometimes mine and thine are used when they follow the substantive, as,

" Lordyng myne." - Gest. Rom. p. 32.

" Master mine."

Merry Wives of Windsor, i. 1. 163.

Hi-s is a true genitive of the root hi.

He-r (O.E. hi-re), contains a genitive suffix fem.-r. Its (O.E. his). This is quite a modern form, not much older than the end of the sixteenth century. It does not occur in the Bible; it was not used by Spenser, rarely by Shakspeare and Bacon, but is more frequently employed by Milton, and had quite established itself in Dryden's time as the regular form. The true genitive of it is his.

"Put up again thy sword into his place."-Matt. xxvi. 52.

"Learning has his infancy, when it is but beginning, and almost childish; then his youth, when it is luxuriant and juvenile; then his strength of years, when it is solid and reduced; and lastly, his old age, when it waxeth dry and exhaust."—BACON, Essays, 58.

In the fourteenth century we find hit = its. This form was kept up as late as the seventeenth century.

" Of it own accord."-Levit. xxv. 5.

"It knighthood shall do worse....it shall fright all it friends."

BEN JONSON, The Silent Woman, ii. 3.

The own = its own, occurs as early as the fourteenth century, and was in use in the sixteenth century.

"And albeit their trumpery be built up, and reared as high as the sky, yea even in a moment, and as it were of the own self, falleth it down again."—Translation of Jewel, ed. Jelf, p. 153.

Ou-r, you-r (O.E. ur-e, eow-er.)

These forms contain a suffix -r, which belongs also to the genitive plural of adjectives. See note on Alderliefest, § 111, p. 88.

Their has this genitival suffix -r, which also appears in O.E. hi-re, heo-re; M.E. he-r. See table,

р. 106.

IV. Independent or Absolute Possessives.

134. Mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, are used without a following noun.

"Be thine despair and sceptred care;
To triumph and to die are mine."

GRAY, The Bard.

Ours, yours, theirs are double genitives, containing a genitive plural suffix -r + a singular suffix -s. Hers is also a double genitive.

These genitives in -s are not found in the oldest English; they made their first appearance in the Northern dialects of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and are due to Scandinavian influence. Cp. Swed. (old style) mins, dins, = mine, thine; värs = ours, ers, = yours.

The more ordinary forms in the Southern dialects were hire, hir (hers), oure, our (ours), &c. Sometimes we find ouren =

ours, heren = theirs.

II.—DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

135. The Demonstratives are the, that, this,

such, so, same, yon, (yond, yonder).

The (usually called the Definite Article), was formerly declined like an adjective for number, gender, and case; it is now indeclinable.

Dat.

SINGULAR.

Masculine.

	M.E.	E.E.	O.E.
Nom.	the	the	se
Gen.		the-s, tha-s	thæ-s
Dat.	the	tha-n, the-n	tha-m, thæ-m
Acc.	the	tha-n, tho-n	tha-ne
Inst.	the	the	thî, thê
	Marie Town	2 ma 2/2/1 =	ON ELECT

Feminine.

Nom.	the	theo, the	seo
Gen.		the-re, tha-re	thæ-re
Dat.	the	the-re, tha-re	thæ-re
Acc.	the	tha, theo, tho, the	

Neuter.

	the, that	the-t, tha-t	thæ-t
Gen. }	like t	he masculine.	100

PLURAL.

Nom.	the, tho, tha, thai	tha, theo, the	thâ
Gen.	the	tha-re, the-re, the-r	thâ-ra, thæ-ra
Dat.	the, (tha, tho,	tha-re, the-re, the-r tha-re, the-re, the-r	thâ-m, thæ-m
Acc.	thai)	tha, tho, the	thâ

In the second period the article is flexionless in Northern writers.

The old form tho, the plural of the, is used as late as Warner's time. They is occasionally found in Tudor English as the plural of the.

The, before comparatives, as, "the more the merrier," is a remnant of the old instrumental case thit. Cp. O.E. thit mare = Lat. eo magis. It must be parsed as an adverb when used in this way.

136. That was originally the neuter of the. In Northern dialects it replaced the demonstrative thilk, and was used before nouns of all genders. Its plurals were (1) tho (or tha) the pl. of the def. art.; (2) thos (or thas) the old plural of this.

The t in that is the old neuter suffix. Cp. it.

what.

Those (O.E. thâs), was at first the plural of this. It had established itself, as early as the middle of the fourteenth century, as the plural of that.

137. This was originally neuter. As late as 1387 we find thes (masc.), theos (fem.), this (neuter), Lat. hic, hæc, hoc.

This is more emphatic than the, and was originally equivalent to the-the. Cp. Fr. ce-ci, ce-la.

These (O.E. thæs, thâs, E.E. thas, theos, thos, thes, these, M.E. thes, thees, thise, these).

The final e in these, marks the length of the preceding vowel; it is not an inflexion.

The form these in M. E. may have been a new plural formed from this, and therefore commonly spelt thise.

This and that sometimes replace the former and the latter (O.E. se ærra and se æftera) see § 116, p. 95.

This usually refers to the latter of two things

mentioned, that to the former.

"Two principles in human nature reign; Self-love to urge, and Reason to restrain; Nor this a good, nor that a bad we call."

POPE, Essay on Man, ii. 2.

138. Such (O.E. swile, E.E. swileh, M.E. swilk, swich, swuch, sich, such) is a compound of so (O.E. swâ), and like (O.E. lie). Such like is pleonastic.

We find compounds of such in some such and none such.

139. Thilk (O. E. thylc) = the like. Cp. Lat. ta-lis.

The like is used often as a substitute for the older thilk.

140. Ilk (O. E. ylc) = that like, same.

141. Otherlike and other the like are found in the seventeenth century.

" Chaffe, straw and otherlike mullocke."

HOLLAND, Pliny, 601.

142. So (O.E. swå), is often used as a substitute, for such.

"I am wiser than so" i.e. a baby.-FORD.

143. Same (M.E. same, Gothic sama). In the oldest period same is a conjunction, as swa same swa = the same as; sam—sam = whether—or.

Same is joined to the, this, that, and self (e.g. self-same. See § 132, p. 112).

144. Yon, yond, yonder (O.E. geon, Goth. jains, Ger. jener) = that, ille.

" Near yonder copse."

GOLDSMITH, Deserted Village, 1. 136.

"Beside yon straggling fence."—Ib. l. 193.

You is a derivative from the demonstrative root ge (or ja). In O.E. geon = ille; geond = illic and trans.

Yonder (adv.) is in Gothic jaindre.

In M.E. we find you a like such a, each a, &c., from which probably has arisen youd-er.

The Scotch still use you substantively.

" Yonder's a bad man."

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, II. p. 400.

" Yon er theves." - C. Mundi, C. l. 4890.

" sonder ar theyes."-Ib. F.

" 3ondir be theves."-Ib. T.

Neut.

hwæt

Masc. and Fem.

Nom. who

"Bote take we him ute of 30n den, And selle we him to 30ne chapmen."

C. Mundi, G. Il. 4185-6.

"Take we him out of 3onder den

And sel him forth to zone chapmen."—Ib. F.

"Take we him out of that den And selle we him to those chapmen."—Ib. T.

III.—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

145. The Interrogatives are who, which, what, whether, with their indefinite compounds whoever, whatever, whichever.

146. Who (masc. and fem.) is only used of persons. Its neuter is what.

hwâ

Neut.

what

hwam, wham | what

O.E.

Masc. and Fem.

Gen. whose	whose	hwæs	hwæs
Dat. whom	what	hwam, hwæm	hwæm
Acc. whom	what	hwone, hwæne	hwæt
Inst.	[why]	hwî	hwî
ti and the state of the state o			
E.E.		M.E.	
Masc. and Fem.	Neut.	Masc. and Fem.	Neut.
Nom. hwa, wha,	hwat, hwet,	wha, hwo, wo,	what, wat,
wa	what, whæt	ho, quo	huet
Gen. hwas, whas,		whas, whos,	Laboratorial Control
was	as masc.	wos, hos	as masc.
Dat. hwam, whan,	as masc.	whom, wham,	4-3311
		wom	as masc.

Who-se was originally of all genders. It can be used absolutely, as, "whose is the crime?" The s in whose is a genitive suffix, as in hi-s.

Acc. hwan, wan, hwat, whæt, whom, wan, won what, wat,

Who-m is a dative like hi-m. It is now also accusative, the older acc. hwone having been replaced by it in the thirteenth century.

147. Wha-t was originally neuter (like tha-t), and never masc. or fem. It got its present usage as early as the beginning of the thirteenth century in the Northern dialects.

What for = what sort of.

"What's he for a man."
PEELE, ed. Dyce, p. 383.

148. Whe-ther (O.E. hwather, M.E. whether, wher), which of the two.

"God cupid, or the keeper, I know not whether,
Unto my cost and charges brought you thither."

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, The Knight
of the Burning Pestle, i. 2.

"Whether of them twain did the will of his father."

Matt. xxi. 31.

For the suffix -ther, see Three § 118, p. 97.

We find in the seventeenth century whether-so-ever; in the fourteenth whether-so, whether-ever.

149. Which (O.E. hwile; E.E. while, whileh, wuch; M.E. wich, wuch, which, whileh) contains the whof who, what, and -lc = O.E. lîc = like. Cp. qua-lis.

[&]quot;Tele us hwuch is helle."-O.E. Hom. I. p. 249.

⁼Tell us what hell is like.

[&]quot;Moyses seide, Lord wuch is pi face, let me hit iseo."—Vernon MS.

IV.—RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

150. The Relative Pronouns are who, which, what, that, as.

In the oldest period, who, which, and what, were not relative, but interrogative pronouns; whose, and whom, were established as relatives as early as the thirteenth century; but who was much later in getting a relative force, and did not come into common use before the end of the sixteenth century.

151. Who, as a relative, is not recognized by Ben

Jonson, who speaks of "one relative which."

In 'Palladius on *Husbondrie*,' A.D. 1420, we find who used as a relative with a neuter antecedent.

Who (= he who, whoever) replaced the E.E. the the, or the that = he that.

"Who steals my purse steals trash."—Othello, iii. 3. 15. In this sense who = quisquis, is an indefinite pronoun. In M.E. the is sometimes joined to whose and whom. Who (and its cases) are often followed in M.E. by that.

152. Which at present relates only to neuter antecedents, but this is comparatively a modern restriction.

"Our Father which art in heaven."

In M.E. which is frequently joined to the, that, as:—the which, which that, which as, &c.

153. That, originally the *neuter singular* relative, now agrees with singular and plural antecedents of all genders.

That, during the twelfth century, began to supply the place of the *indeclinable* relative the, and in the fourteenth century it was the ordinary, though not the only relative. In the sixteenth century, which often supplied its place; and in the seventeenth century, who was frequently employed instead of it. At a later period (Addison's time), that had again come into fashion, and had almost driven who and which out of use.

That (O.E. $\delta \alpha t t e = \delta \alpha t \ p e$), is sometimes used in the sense of that which, or what.

"We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen."

St. John, iii. 11.

154. What = that which, refers to singular and neuter antecedents. Its true genitive is whose.

"Nebuchadnezzar, the king, made an *image* of gold, whose height was threescore cubits." — Dan. iii. I. See Milton's Par. Lost. Bk. i. l. 2,

What that, that what, what as, are archaic compounds.

155. Who-so, what-so, who-so-ever, what-so-ever, which-so-ever, are indefinite, like the Latin quisquis, quicunque.

O.E. swâ hwa swâ = E.E. wha-swa, wha-se, M.E. who-so; O.E. swâ hwylc swâ = which so, which soever.

In the sixteenth century we often find what-som-ever = M.E. what-sum-ever; sum = as, so is Danish.

"To quat contre sum that thou wend."

C. Mundi, C. l. 1149.

"To quat contre so thu wend."

Ib. C

- 156. Who-ever, what-ever, which-ever, are relative and interrogative. They do not occur in the oldest English.
- 157. As (O.E. eall-swa; E.E. alswa, alse; M.E. ase, as, als, also), has a relative force after such, same, that.

Such — as = O.E. swyle — swyle = such — such. E.E. swile — als.

V.-INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

158. The Indefinite Pronouns are who, what, some, one, any, none, no, aught, naught, each, every, either, neither, other, else, enough, sundry, certain, several.

159. Who = anyone, some one, has an indefinite sense in some old expressions:

"Not as who saith by authority,
But by the way of intreaty."

The 4 P.P. in O.E. Plays, ed. Hazlitt, 1. 373.

" As who should say."-Macbeth, III. 6.

160. What is indefinite in

"I'll tell you what now of the devil."

MASSINGER, Virgin Martyr, iii. 3.

What not, what else (M.E. elles what).

In O.E. hwa, &-hwa = anyone, hwat, &-hwat = aught, anything. In the thirteenth century we find what treated as a substantive in an hwat = one thing, which gave rise to E.E. sum-what, other-what; M.E. much-what, little-what, many-what, modern English somewhat.

There may have been some confusion between aught, wight;

and whit. See § 164, p. 125.

"A strawnge watt" (= wight.)

Coventry Mysteries, p. 294

"I am a fulle gret watt."—Townley Mysteries, p. 8. "Much what."—Sir Gawayne, ed. Morris, p. 41.

"A little what."—WICLIFFE, John vi. 7; and SPENSER, Shep. Cal. (July).

161. Some (O.E. sum; M.E. som, some, aliquis, quelque), is both singular and plural, but is mostly used before plural nouns. It has the force of the indefinite a, a certain, some one; some—some = one—another, some—others.

Other-some = some others, is used by Shake-speare in the Comedy of Errors, iii. 2.

'Framing unto some unwholesome sores plaisters, and applying other some where no sore is."—HOOKER, v. I. I.

In O.E. and E.E. sum was declined like the strong declension of adjectives, see § 112, p. 89.

In M.E. we find pl. sume, summe, some,

As late as the fourteenth century we find some used in apposition with a pronoun or noun, as sume we = some of us.

For some = an, cp. the following versions of the same line:—
"Thar-bi groues sum apell tre."—C. Mundi, C. l. 2877.

"Tharby grows an appel tre."-Ib. T.

Compounds of some are somebody, something, someone, somewhat.

Somebody seems to have got into the language through the use of body for wight (person).

"A bodye thynketh himselfe well emended in his substaunce and ryches, to whom hath happened some good goubbe of money."—ERASMUS, Apophthegms, englished by Udall, ed. 1542, p. 14a.

No body occurs in *Piers Plowman.*—B. xvi. 83, p. 292. Something has in a great measure replaced *somewhat*. This

usage is as early as the thirteenth century.

Some one arose in the early part of the fourteenth century, and replaced *sum man*; it is also used where in M.E. *oon*, one = some one was employed.

All and some (M.E. al and sum) = all and one, all and

singular, is used by Dryden.

"— you must march both all and some."—PEELE, Edw. I.

In the sixteenth century it often appears as whole and some,
all or some.

Sometimes we meet with a redundancy of indefinites :-

"And the nature of all creatures is contained in some certain one place."—Becon, Prayers, p. 273.

"Thus saith Pope Alexander, Gregory, John Clement, or some such other like."—PILKINGTON, p. 20.

one with extended usage. It has a genitive one's, and a plural ones.

In the O.E. and M.E. one was declined according to the strong declension. See § 112, p. 89.

It has various usages :-

(1) In "one says" it replaces the O.E. man, M.E. me (Ger. man, Fr. on). This use is as early as the fifteenth century.

(2) It has an indefinite sense like the Latin quidam, Greek ris, especially before proper nouns, as, "one Simon a tanner" (Acts ix. 43). This use is found in E.E. See St. Juliana, p. 5.

"One in a certain place testifieth."-Heb. ii. 6.

"Also oon told hym that oon of his frendes hadde ispoke euel by hym."—*Trevisa*, iii. 317.

See Piers Plowman, B. xx. 157, 161, p. 374.

(3) It is equivalent to some one, see King Lear, i. 3.

(4) It is also used as a noun = person, thing (M.E. wight, thing). This usage is found in the fourteenth century.

(5) It is used instead of repeating the noun.

(6) The one = the first. See § 121, p. 99.

(7) One = the same, as, "it's all one;" "one and the same."

For one we sometimes use a man, they, you, people. In M.E. me = men, is used for one (Fr. on); but with a singular verb.

"The vyne also *thai* sayen hath that nature,
That vynes yf *me* brenne, or white or blake,
And kest hem into wyne, *me* may be sure
The wyne coloure after the vynes take."

PALLADIUS, Husbondrie, p. 200.

The expression as one that = M.E. as he that; E.E. as the that; as a with that; as thing that.—See Juliana, pp. 4, 5, 8, 20, 21.

163. None, no = O.E. nan = ne an = not one. No is formed from none by the dropping off of ne. (Cp. my and mine). None is used absolutely, that is, without a following noun: "I have none."

In none other (Acts iv. 12; Deut. v. 7), we have the M.E. use of none for no before a yowel.

Other-noon (Cp. other some) occurs in M.E.

No one = not one, is tautological, (being for ne one one) but it evidently replaces M.E. no man, no wight. Compounds of no are nothing, nobody. Ford has nobody's else for nobody else's.

164. Aught = anything (O.E. \hat{a} wiht, \hat{a} wuht, auht, aht). It contains the prefix \hat{a} = ever, aye; and the root ught = wight, whit (O.E. wiht, wuht, uht), creature, thing, something.

Naught (O.E. nawiht, nawuht, nauht, naht, neaht, noht), and not (M.E. nat, not, noght), are negative forms of aught.

Awhit is another form of aught. Cp. anywhit, everywhit. As not = nowhit = naught, not a whit is pleonastic.

That nawight = noght = not is seen from the following versions of the same line.

- "Sco said, ne herd yee na wight hou. '-C. Mundi, C. l. 4396.
- "Scho said, ne herd 3e noght how."-Ib. G.
- "She seide, herde 3e not how."-Ib. T.

In the following passages nawight is replaced by nathing, nothing,

- "Ne sal thou nawight thar-wit win."-Ib. C. l. 919.
- "Ne sal thou napinge thar-with wyn."-Ib. F.

Whit = aught, in

"The devil have they whit else."

THERSITES, O. E. Plays, ed. Hazlitt, I. p. 428.

165. Any (O.E. $\hat{a}n$ -ig; E.E. ani, ai, ai; M.E. eny, ony, any = ullus), has an adjective form like dirt-y, and the stem is an = one. The negative of any is none. In O.E. and E.E. we had a true negative, $n \hat{a}n = nullus$.

In O.E. any was declined like one. A plural in -e was in use in the fourteenth century.

The genitive anies = anyone's occurs in Warner's Albion's

England, p. 200.

Compounds of any are anyone, anybody (M.E. any wight, any persone, any man), anything.

166. Each = O.E. æ-lc = â-ge-lic; E.E. elc, elch, euch; M.E. uch, ych, ech, ilk.

Each is a compound of a, ever, and lîc, like. (Cp. which, such, &c.). In E.E. and M.E. each was followed by an, a, on, (= one). This use has survived in each one.

Each other besides being equivalent to each the other, see § 170, signifies every second, each alternate.

"Living and dying, each other day."

HOLLAND'S Pliny, p. 2,

167. Every (E.E. &ver-ælc; M.E. ever-ich, ever-ilk), is a compound of ever and each. It does not exist in the oldest period.

Every, as late as the seventeenth century, had a substantive use as in the older periods.

" Every of your wishes." - Antony and Cleop. ii. 2.

" Everich of hem his lyf left for a wed."

LYDGATE, The Storie of Thebes, ii. l. 1186.

M.E. evrichon, everilkan, (cp. each one) survives in everyone. Everybody and everything are recent formations.

Ever-any existed in the thirteenth century, and is used by Fabyan (ed. Ellis, p. 251), evereither is used by Pecock. (Spec. Eng. ed. Skeat, p. 55, l. 102.)

Ever-each is like no one, a pleonastic expression, which arose when the origin of every was forgotten.—(See Burton, Anat. of Mel. ed. 1845, p. 601).

168. Either (O.E. æghwæther, ægther, å-hwæther, åwther; E.E. æither, aither, either, other, owther; M.E. either, ayther, other, outher), is an old comparative form (see § 148) containing the prefix â, ever, and the suffix, -ther. It signifies "any one of two." Its negative is neither.

Either has a possessive form either's.

"Then either's love was either's life."

WARNER, Albion's England, p. 57.

"Eytheres will."—Piers Plowman, B. xiii. 348, p. 228.

other), contains the root $\hat{o} = \text{one}$, and the comparative suffix ther. (See § 121, p. 99).

Other originally followed the strong declension of adjectives. Its plural was othre; when the final e became silent, a new plural others was formed.

Other for some time was used as a plural, both in M.E. and in the seventeenth century. Cp. other some = some others.

Another, any other, none other, some other, are forms that arose in the thirteenth century.

Other the like = M.E. otherlike, occurs in Hooker, v. 1. 3.

170. One another, each other, are sometimes called reciprocal pronouns, but they are not compounds. They love one another; they love each other = they love—one (loves) another; they love—each (loves) the other.

171. Else (O.E. elles), is the genitive case of an old pronominal root el = other (Cp. Lat. alius).

We find its pronominal character kept up in what else, O.E. elles hwæt. Warner (Albion's England, p. 178) has elswhat, cp. aught else, nothing else.

Becon constantly uses what other thing for what else. So in Hooker, v. xx. 6.

"For what else is the Law but the Gospel foreshewed?"

"What other the Gospel than the Law fulfilled?"

Other where = elsewhere in Hooker, v. xi. 12.

Else is used substantively in the sense of something else in the following passage.

"What's that she mumbles? The devil's paternoster? Would it were else."—FORD, Witch of Edmonton. ii. 1.

172. Some demonstratives become indefinites. Cp. this and that; such and such; he knew not which was which; ilk and ilk in the Ayenbite, p. 54; he and he = one — another.—Pier's Plowman, B. p. 226; CHAUCER'S Knight's Tale, Il. 1756—1761.

"This would, I have, and that, and then I desire to be such and such."—(Burton, Anat. of Mel. ed. 1845, p. 185.

"One takes upon him temperance, holiness, another austerity, a third an affected kind of simplicity, when, as indeed he, and he, and he, and the rest are 'hypocrites, ambidexters,' outsides, so many turning pictures, a lion on the one side, a lamb on the other."—Ib. p. 34.

"In with the polax preseth he and he;
By hynde the maste begynneth he to fle."

CHAUCER, ed. Morris, v. p. 296.

"Then was I dubde as true precise,
And faithful by and by;

And none was compted hoate enough

Save he and he and I.—DRANT'S Horace.

See Palladius, *Husbondrie*, p. 126, l. 610; Burton, *Anat. of Mel.* ed. 1845, p. 8.

173. Enough (O.E. genôh, E.E. inoh, ino3. M.E. inough,

ynough, anough, inow, enogh.)

We sometimes meet with the plural, enow, anow, (M.E. inowe, anowe).

174. The words sundry, divers, certain, and several, have acquired more or less the force of indefinite pronouns.

"They had their several (= separate) partitions for heathen nations, their several for the people ..., their several for men, their several for women, their several for the priests, and for the high priest alone their several."—

HOOKER, v. xiv. I.

CHAPTER X.

THE VERB.

175. Verbs may be classified, according to their meaning, as Transitive and Intransitive.

Transitive verbs express an action which does not terminate in the agent, but passes over to ar object; as, "he learns his lesson." Transitive verbs are used reflexively; as, "he killed himself;" "sit thee down," and reciprocally, as "they helped one another."

Intransitive verbs express an action that is confined to the agent, as, "corn grows." Some intransitive verbs, by the addition of a preposition, become transitive; as, "the man laughs at the boy;" "he talks of himself." Sometimes verbs compounded with prepositions become transitive; cp. come and overcome, speak and bespeak, go and forgo, &c.

176. Some intransitive verbs have a causative form which is always transitive, as,

Intrans.	Trans
fall	fell
sit	set
rise	raise

As we are not now able to form new causative verbs, we are often obliged to give a causative meaning to an intransitive verb, and it then takes an object; as, "he flies his kite," "he ran the knife into his leg." Intransitive verbs may take a noun of kindred meaning as object; as, "he lived a good life," "he died a horrible death."

177. Verbs used with the third person only are called Impersonal verbs, as "me thinks," "it rains," &c. These verbs were much more numerous in the older stages of the language. (See Syntax of Impersonal Verbs).

178. The verb affirms action, or existence of a subject under certain conditions or relations, called voice, mood, tense, number, person. In some languages the verbal root undergoes a change of form to express these various relations.

Voice.

179. Transitive verbs have two voices, the Active and the Passive. When a verb is used in the Active Voice, the subject of the verb represents the actor, or agent; as, "the lion killed the elephant." A verb is said to be in the Passive Voice where the subject denotes the object to which the action is directed; as, "the elephant was killed by the lion."

In English we have no inflexions for the passive voice, as in Latin and Greek, but express the same notion by means of the passive participle and the verb to be. We have a very good substitute for the

passive form in the use of an indefinite pronoun for the subject of the verb; as, "somebody killed the boy" = the boy was killed; "one knows not how it happened," = it is not known how it happened; "they say," = it is said. We can also express the passive voice by means of the verb be, and a verbal noun; as, "the book is printing" (= "the book is a printing" = "the book is in printing") = "the book is being printed."

The passive voice has grown out of reflexive verbs. The r in amo-r is supposed to be a corruption of the pronoun se. Cp. Fr. s'appeler, "to be called." Of the Teutonic languages only the Scandinavian dialects have formed a passive voice by means of the suffix st = sk = sik = self, Lat. se; we have instances of this in busk, "to prepare oneself," "to be ready," and bask from bake.

Mood.

180. Mood has reference to the manner or mode in which anything is predicated of the subject.

The Indicative mood makes a direct assertion, or asks some direct question about a fact; as, "John

has a book," " Has John a book?"

The Subjunctive mood expresses some condition or supposition, as "I may go, if the day be fine;" "Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty;" "Had I the book, I would give it to you;" "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in Him."

As the Subjunctive mood depends upon the construction of sentences, its peculiarities belong to Syntax. The Subjunctive is almost gone out of use; its place is supplied by auxiliary words.

The Imperative mood expresses a command, entreaty, desire, request, &c., as, "follow me," "grant our request."

In this mood we employ the verbal root without any inflexion. It has only one person, the second (singular and plural). In the oldest southern English

the plural took the termination -th.

Some languages inflect the imperative mood for all persons. We have a substitute for the first and third persons in the use of let; "let me call," "let him call." In old English *let* = cause. Formerly the Subjunctive had the sense of the Imperative, traces of which we have in such expressions as,

" But fall I first

Amongst my sorrows, ere my treacherous hand, Touch holy things."

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, The Maid's Tragedy, Act. iii. Sc. 1.

"My soul turn from them, turn we to survey."

GOLDSMITH, Trav. 165.

"Fall he that must beneath his rival's arms."-POPE.

The Infinitive mood is an abstract noun, and has no inflexions for voice, mood, &c.; as, "to see," "to know." See p. 164 for a fuller treatment of the Infinitive Mood.

Participles are verbal adjectives, and always refer to some noun in the sentence. Many adjectives take a participial form in ing, or ed, or en. See § 76, p. 59.

[&]quot;Thou to the untamed horse
Didst use the conquering bit;
And here the well-shaped oar,
By skilled hands deftly plied,

Still leapeth through the sea,

Following in wondrous guise

The fair Nereids with their hundred feet."

PLUMPTRE'S Œdipus at Colonus.

A Verbal Noun in -ing (O.E. -ung), often corresponds to a Latin gerund, as "he thanked him for saving his life." Here saving is not a participle, because "for saving" represents an older, "for the saving of."

"Thonkyng him for the saving of his life."

Gesta Rom. p. 7.

" In knowing of the tid of day."

CHAUCER, Astrolabe, p. 19.

"Concerning the means of procuring unity, men must beware that in the procuring or muniting of religious unity, they do not dissolve and deface the laws of charity and of human society."—BACON, Essays, 3.

Here procuring = the procuring of.

In such expressions as a "walking stick," "the church-going bell," the words walking and going are verbal nouns. In the earlier periods these nouns in -ing were preceded by various prepositions—an, a, on, in, at, to.

"He sent Ancus his sones an hontynge."

Trevisa, iii. 87.

"We han a wyndowe a wirchyng."

Piers Plowman, B. p. 34.

"He fel on slepynge."

Generides, 201.

"While it was in doynge."

Trevisa, iii, 97.

"While it was in workyng."

HARDYNG.

" At huntyng he sleugh his father."

"If she were going to hanging, no gallows should part us."

MASSINGER, Virgin Martyr, II. 3.

"Hou hue Absolon to hongynge brouhte."

Piers Plowman, C. p. 64.

These verbal nouns may take an adjective or a demonstrative before them. They may also be used like an ordinary noun as the subject or object of a sentence.

Tense.

181. Verbs undergo a modification to indicate time. These forms are called **Tenses**. In the oldest period the verb was inflected for the present and perfect tenses only.

There was in O.E. no distinct form for the future, its place being supplied by the present. Cp. "he goes to town to-morrow." There were, however, traces of a past indefinite tense formed by the verb was, and the imperfect participle. The perfect and past tenses were expressed by one form.

In the thirteenth century we find the modern future expressed by the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*. In the fourteenth century we find (1) the present imperfect (continuous) formed by the verb *be*, and the present participle; (2) the perfect expressed by the auxiliary *have* and the passive participle; as well as the emphatic form of the present and past tenses, with the auxiliary *do*.

The growth of new forms render a fuller classification of the tenses necessary. The three simple tenses, Present, Past, and Future, have four varieties, (1) indefinite, (2) imperfect, (3) perfect, (4) perfect continuous.

The fourth variety belongs only to the Active Voice.

TABLE OF TENSES.

			e Table	77.1
	Perfect and Continuous.	I have been praising	I had been praising	I shall have been praising
ES.	Perfect.	I have praised	I had praised	I shall have praised
TABLE OF TENSES.	Imperfect and Continuous.	I am praising	I was praising	I shall be praising
	Indefinite,	I praise	I praised	I shall praise
	Tense.	Present	Past	Future

For I praise and I praised we sometimes use I do praise, I did praise, which are mostly emphatic. (See Do under the heading, Auxiliary Verbs.) In the modern stage of the language verbs undergo change of form only for the present and past tenses.

Number.

182. Verbs are modified to express the number and person of the subject. There are two numbers, Singular and Plural; and three persons in each number, First, Second, and Third. Inflexions for number have all disappeared, except in the verb to be. The person-endings are preserved only in the singular number of the present and past tenses of the Indicative mood.

For the origin of the inflexions that mark person, see Verbal Inflexions, § 200, p. 159.

Conjugation.

183. Verbs are classified, according to their mode of expressing the past tense, into Strong and Weak Verbs.

Strong Verbs form their past tense by change of the root vowel; nothing is added to the root, as, fall, fell, fallen. All passive participles of strong verbs once ended in -en; but this ending has been dropped in very many passive participles of this conjugation.

Weak Verbs form their past tense by adding to the root of the present the letter .d, or .t. The vowel e sometimes serves to unite the suffix -d to the root. The passive participles of Weak Verbs end in -d, or -t.

Verbs that have vowel change in the past tense, as well as the suffix -d, are not strong verbs. The vowel change in told, bought, taught, has not the same origin as that in strong verbs.

The strong conjugation includes the oldest verbs in the language. Because this process of vowel change is no longer a regular one, we call these verbs *irregular*.

Very many strong verbs have disappeared from the language: many have gone over altogether to the weak conjugation; some have become weak in the past tense, others in the passive

participle.

A few have lost their past tense and have taken the passive participle instead, as bit from bitten instead of boot (= he did bite), while others again have lost their old past participle, and have taken instead of it the past tense, as, stood for standen.

Strong Verbs.

ORIGIN OF VOWEL CHANGE IN THE PAST TENSE.

184. The oldest mode of forming the perfect tense in the Indo-European languages was by reduplication. as, $\pi \acute{e}$ - $\phi \epsilon \upsilon \gamma \alpha$, &c., Lat. pe-pendi, &c. We have only one verb of this class in modern English, the verb did. Cp. Lat. dedi.

In the oldest stages of the language, reduplicated forms were more numerous, as hêht (our hight), called, from hatan, to call. The Gothic haihait, shows the reduplication more plainly than the O.E. hêht. On comparing the Gothic verb haihald with the O.E. heold, and our held, we see that vowel change has

arisen out of an original reduplication; but we are not able to trace all the past tenses of strong verbs to an earlier reduplicated form. Those that can be so traced form a class by themselves, which we shall call the *First Division*, and the remainder, the *Second Division*.

First Division.

185. The first division consists of two classes of verbs, (1) those whose passive participles preserve the vowel of the present; (2) those whose passive participles have vowel change.

186. DIVISION I.—CLASS I.

				O.E.	
Pres.	PAST	PASS. PART.	Pres.	PAST	PASS. PART
a, o, ea	е	a, o	ea, â, o	eo, e	ea, a
fall hang hold blow know grow throw crow	fell hung held blew knew grew threw crew	fallen hung held, holden blown known grown thrown crown	fealle hange healde blâwe cnâwe grôwe thrâwe crâwe	feoll hêng heold bleow cneow greow threow creow	feallen hangen healden blâwen cnâwen grôwen thrâwen crâwen
beat gang mow sow hew	[crowed ¹] beat [went] [mowed] [sowed] [hewed]	[crowed] beaten gone [mowed] mown sown [hewed] hewn	beâte gange mâwe sâwe heâwe	beot geong meow seow heow	beâten gangen mâwen sâwen heâwen

⁽I) The following verbs once belonged to this class: flow, fold, low, leap, let, row, span, sleep, sweep, walk, well weep.

⁽²⁾ As early as the fourteenth century we find weak past tenses of the verbs know, blow, grow, leap, walk.

⁽³⁾ Fold. In the English Bible (Nahum x. 10) we find p. p. folden. Cotgrave has unfolden.

The words in brackets are the ordinary forms now in use.

- (4) Held, is an instance of a passive participle being replaced by a past tense. This arose through the dropping of *en* in holden, which left hold as the passive participle, in no wise differing in form from the present tense. Cp. *stood* for *stand* = *standen*.
- (5) Hew retained its strong past tense as late as the sixteenth century.

"And (he) hew it al to smal peces."-St. Juliana, p. 85.

"And the yere folowynge Kyng Wyllyam hewe downe moche of the wood."—FABYAN, Chronicle, p. 250.

Hewn and mown are mostly used as adjectives, as, "hewn stones," "mown grass."

(6) Hang. The old preterite was heng (See Chaucer, *Prol.* 1. 160). The past hung seems to have arisen from the M.E. form of the past participle hongen (pronounced like the o in some).

"Me bouste I saw a wyn-tre
On bis tre, on vche a bowse

Henge grapes bicke ynowse:
Of bo grapes bat bere hong
In a coupe me bouste I wrong."

Cursor Mundi, T. l. 4413.

Hardyng (Chronicle, p. 310) uses hong for hung (p. p.):-

"On Sainct Andrewes day thei wer drawe and hong."

"With ropes were thou bounde and on the gallowe honge."

FABYAN, Chronicle, p. 430.

(7) Sew = sewed.

"An husband that seu god sed apon his land."—Met. Hom.

(8) Welk = walked.

"A man welk thoru a wod his wai"—Cursor Mundi, Edinburgh MS.

"And than we welk forth."—Paston Letters, ed. Gairdner, vol. i. p. 111.

(9) Leep (lep) = leaped.

'For which his hors for feere gan to turne, And leep asyde, and foundred as he leep."

CHAUCER, Knightes Tale, 1. 1828.

(10) Flowed. The O.E. fleow became in E.E. fleaw, fleau; in M.E. flew is used as the past of fly or flee.

"The flood that overflew at the world,"-CAFGRAVE, p. 17.

(II) Slep = sleeped.

"Thre daies slep he al on-on." - O.E. Misc. p. 24.

(12) Wep = weeped.

"Swiche teares wep ure drihten." - O.E. Hom. II. p. 145.

187. DIVISION I.—CLASS II.

Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.	Pres.	O.E. PAST	PASS. PAR
i	a, u, ou	u, ou	i	a	u
begin cling	began clang [clung]	begun clung	on-ginne ¹ clinge	on-gana clang	on-gunnen clungen
climb	clomb [climbed]	[climbed]	climbe	clamb	clumben
drink	drank	drunk	drince	dranc	druncen
run	ran	run	rinne, yrne	ran, arn	runnen
swim	swam	swum	swimme	swamm	swummen
spin	span [spun]	spun	spinne	spann	spunnen
sing	sang	sung	singe	sang	sungen
shrink	shrank	shrunk	since	sanc	suncen
sink	sank	sunk	scrince	scranc	scruncen
fling	flang[flung]	flung	-	_	_
sling	slang[slung]	slung		, -	. —
ring	rang	rung	hringe	hrang	hrungen
slink	slunk	slung	-	and the same of th	-
spring	sprang	sprung	springe	sprang	sprungen
sting	stang[stung]		stinge	stang	stungen
swing	swang [swung]	swung	swinge	swang	swungen
wring	wrang	wrung	wringe	wrang	wrungen
	[wrung]				
win	wan [won]	won			
bind	bound	bounden [bound]	binde	band	bunden
find	found	found	finde	fand	funden
fight	fought	fought		-	-
grind	ground	ground	grinde	grand	grunden
wind	wound	wound	_	-	_
e	0	0	e	ea	0
help	holp [helped]	holpen [helped]	helpe	healp	holpen
melt	molt [melted]	molten [melted]	melte	mealt	molten
swell	[swelled]	swollen [swelled]	swelle	sweal	swollen
burst	burst	burst	berste	bearst	borsten

All these verbs had a plural form in U:-we clungon, &c. = we clung.

- (I) To this class once belonged bellow, burn, ding, delve, carve, milk, mourn, starve, swallow, stint, spurn, thrash, wink, yield.
- (2) Bounden, drunken, molten, shrunken, sunken, are still occasionally used as *adjectives*.
- (3) The forms in u (spun, clung) have arisen from the passive participle.
- (4) The ou in bound, &c. stands for an older o or a. This ou is probably due to the u in the past participle which in M.E. became ou; thus the O.E. funden = M.E. founden. Cp. O.E. cu, hu = M.E. cou, hou = Eng. cow, how.
 - (5) Clomb = climbed.
 - "So clomb this first grand thief into God's fold."

 MILTON, Paradise Lost, iv. 192.
 - "We forded the river, and clomb the high hill."

 Byron, Siege of Corinth, 1. 6.
 - (6) Swal = swelled.
 - "And [he] swalle and become grete."

 LA TOUR LANDRY, p. 37.
 - "Hir thought it swal so sore about hir hert."

 CHAUCER, C. T. 1. 6549.
 - (7) Dalf = delved.
 - "When Adam dalve and Eve span, Who was then the gentleman?"

PILKINGTON, p. 125; see Piers Plowman, B. vi. 193.

- "Whenne thei be dolven in her den."

 Babees Book, p. 52.
- (8) Halp = helped.
 - "This good lady she halpe."

 LA TOUR LANDRY, p. 136.
- "Those that be in hell cannot be holpen by it [prayer]."— GRINDAL, Rem. p. 34.

(9) Yald = yielded.

"He yalde ayen the sight unto this good man."—LA TOUR LANDRY, p. 102.

"He yald hym creaunt to Crist."

Piers Plowman, ed. Wright, l. 7810, B. xii. 193.

Surrey has the old past participle yolden; Fabyan has yolded.

(10) Foughten = fought (p.p.).

"This yere was the felde of Dykysmew foughten."—FABYAN, p. 683.

"On the foughten field."

MILTON, Paradise Lost, vi. 410.

(II) Malt = melted.

"And the metalle be the hete of the fire malt."

CAPGRAVE, p. 9.

(12) Dang = dinged.

"That thai suld tak kobille stanes,
And ding his teth out all at anes;
And when thai with the stanes him dang,
He stode ay laghand tham omang."

MS. Harl. 4196, fol. 170.

(13) Carf = carved.

"And carf byforn his fader at the table."

CHAUCER, Prol. 1. 100.

"Tho was he corven out of his harneys."

The Knightes Tale, 1. 1838.

(14) Starf = starved, died,

"- Kyng Capaneus

That starf at Thebes."

Ib. 1. 935.

(15) Wonk = winked.

"He wonk, and gan about hyme to behold."

Lancel. of the Laik, 1. 1058.

(16) Burst (past) has come in through the old p. p. borsten or bursten. The true past is brast or barst. "And ute as a brok it brast be strand."

Cursor Mundi, 1. 6392.

188. Second Division. Division II.—Class I.

		10000		O.E.	
Pres.	PAST	PASS. PART.	PRES.	Past	PASS. PART.
ea	o (a)	0	е	æ	0
(1) bear break	bore, bare* broke, brake*	born broken	bere	bær	boren
shear	[sheared]	shorn [sheared]	scere	scær	scoren
speak	spoke, spake*	spoken	sprece	spræc	sprecen
steal tear	stole tore, tare*	stolen torn	stele tere	stæl tær	stolen toren
(2) come	came	come	cume .	com	cumen

(1) The old verbs nim (take), quell once belonged to this class.

(2) The O.E. æ became in M.E. a (cp. the archaic forms

bare, spake, brake), and o.

(3) The n of the p.p. in M.E. was often dropped in all dialects except the Northern. We find in Shakespeare many instances of these curtailed forms, as, broke, spoke, stole, for broken, spoken, stolen.

(4) Shear. The old past tense was share or shore.

"First he shar a-two here throtes."—HAVELOK, l. 1413.

189. DIVISION II.-CLASS II.

	*				O.E.	
	PRES.	PAST	PASS. PART.	PRES.	Past	PASS. PART.
	i	a	i	i, e	æ, (ea)	е
(1) bid give lie sit	bade, bid gave lay sat	bidden, bid given lien,* lain sat	bidde gife licge sitte	bæd geaf læg sæt	beden gifen legen seten
e	a, (ee); e	a, (o)	ea, (ee,) o			
(2) eat get tread	ate gat, got trod	eaten gotten,* got trodden, trod	ete -gite trede	æt -geat træd	eten -geten treden
	see weave	saw wove quoth was	seen woven	seo, seohe wefe cwethe [wese]	seah wæf cwæth wæs	ge-sên wefen cweden wesen
	Words marked thus * are archaic.					

(1) Quoth is now used as a present tense. The root of the present is seen in bequeathe, the old preterite of which was

"[He] biquath his serke to his love."

Gest. Rom. 23.

(2) Fret, knead, wreak, and mete (measure), once belonged to this conjugation.

(3) The old form lien occurs in Gen. xxvi. 10, Ps. lxviii.

Tyndall it is spelt lyne, lyen.

- (4) The past tenses of wreak in M.E. were wrek and wrak; p.p. vwroken. Spenser uses the p.p. wroken. Surrey has unwroken = unrevenged.
- (5) The o in trod, got, quoth, arises out of M.E. a = O.E. = æ.
- (6) Scott (Waverley, xi.) has eat = ate. Shakespeare (King John I. I.), has eat = eaten; O.E. æ becomes M.E. e(ee), as well as a; hence M.E. eet = eat = ate.

"Butter and bred thai ete al-sua."

C. Mundi, G., 1. 2715. "Butter and breed thei eet also."-Ib. T.

190. DIVISION II.—CLASS III.

PRES.	PAST	PASS. PART.	PRES.	PAST	PASS. PART
a	o, 00, e	a (0)	a	0	a
awake forsake	awoke forsook	awoke forsaken	wace	wôc	wacen
lade grave.	[laded] [graved]	laden[laded]	hlade grafe	hlôd grôf	hladen grafen
engrave		graven			
stand shave	stood [shaved]	stood shaven [shaved]	stande scaf	stôd scôf	standen scafen
shake	shook	shaken	scace	scôc	scacen
swear	swore	sworn	swerige	swôr	sworen
take	took	taken	tace	tôc	tacen
draw	drew	drawn	drage	drôh	dragen
slay	slew	slain	sleahhe	slôh	sleahhen

(I) To this class of verbs once belonged ache, bake, fare, gnaw, heave, laugh, shape, step, wade, wash, wax, yell.

(2) The past tense is often used for the past participle, as mistook = mistaken (Jul. Casar, I. 2; Milton's Arcades),

shook = shaken (Paradise Lost, VI., 219); stood has taken the place of the p.p. standen, or stonden.

- (3) Sware for swore occurs in Mark, VI., 23. The a is not original, but probably arose through the M.E. swar=swer, which caused it to be classed with spake, bare, &c. Cp. I. 1618 in Cursor Mundi, where "he suar his ath" in Cotton MS. (Northern dialect) = "he swor an ooth" in Trin. MS. (Midland dialect).
 - (4) Bake. The old p.p. baken occurs in Levit. ii. 4.
 "myn hungir book thi blisful breed."
 POL. Rel. Love Poems, p. 191.

"—benes and bren ybaken togideres."

Piers Plowman, vi. B. 184, p. 102.

- (5) Gnaw was once conjugated like draw, slay. In M.E. we find gnow and gnew; gnew was used late in the sixteenth century. The p.p. be-gnawn occurs in the Taming of the Shrew, iii, 2.
 - " pat best gnow up al bidene."—Cursor Mundi, G. l. 6043.
 " So depe hi [rasours] wode and gnowe."—St. Fuliana, p. 85.
- (6) Heave. For heaved we sometimes find hove and heft.

The O.E. pret. was hof. E.E. haf, heof, hef, M.E. hef, hove.

- "She hef hir heued heyer."-CHAUCER, Boethius, 1. 5141.
- "Ure lafdi......this dai was hoven into heuene."—O.E. Hom. II. p. 167.
- (7) Shape. The old past tense shope, was in use in the sixteenth century.

" I shoop me into shroudes."

Piers Plowman, B. Prol. 2.

"But at the last god *shope* a remedy."

HICKSCORNER, p. 163, ed. 1874.

The p.p. occurs in mis-shapen, ill-shapen. See Ps. li. 5.

(8) Grave. We have the old p.p. as an adjective in "a graven image."

The verb to grave once signified to bury.

"In Ebron hir grof Abraham,
Thar first was graven hali Adam."
C. Mundi, G. 1. 3213.

- (9) Lade. We find as passive participle loden, loaden, as well as laden.
- (10) Wash. The old p.p. was retained very late in un-

"Hir body wessch with water."
CHAUCER, Knightes Tale, 1. 1425.

(11) Wax to grow. Spenser has wox past, and woxen p.p., waxen = grown, occurs in Gen. xix. 13, Lev. xxv. 39.

"bai stod ban still and wex no more."

Cursor Mundi, l. 1420

191. DIVISION II.-CLASS IV.

PRES.	PAST	PASS. PART.	PRES.	PAST	PASS. PART.
i (long)	0	i (short)	î	â	i
a-bide bite drive	abode bit drove	abede, abiden* bitten driven	bîte drîfe	bâd bât drâf	biden biten drifen
chide	chode,*	chidden, chid	cîde	câd	ciden
ride	rode, rid*	ridden, rid	ride	râd	riden
rise rive	rose rove [rived]	risen riven [rived]	rîse	râs	risen
shine	shone	shone	scîne	scân	scinen
shrive	shrove	shriven	scrife	scrâf	gescrifen
slide	slid	slidden, slid	slîde	slâd	sliden
smite	smote, smit*	smitten	smite	smât	smiten
stride	strode	stridden	strîthe	strâth	strithen
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, throve*	_	-	_
write	wrote, writ*		write	wrât	writen
strike	struck	struck, stricken	strice	strāc	stricen
strive	strove	striven	-	_	_

^{*} Obsolete.

- (1) To this class once belonged gripe, flite (strive), glide, reap, slit, spew, sigh, wreathe.
- (2) The o in this class of verbs stands for an older a, which occurs in the archaic forms drave (Josh. xvi. 10, Spenser, F. Q. VI. vii. 12); strake (Acts, xxvii. 17); strave (Surrey).
- (3) Bit (cp. the old past tenses rid, slid, writ, smit), is borrowed from the pass participle. The true form is bot, or boot.

 "The serpent boot the grehounde greyously."

Gest. Rom. 87.

(4) Shone, abode, struck (p.p.) show how the past tense has replaced the older passive participle.

" Till the sunne haveth sinen."

= Till the sun hath shone.

O.E. Miscell. p. I.

"Yf he had abyden at home."

LA Tour Landry, p. 170.

"Well stricken in years."

Luke i. 7; see Ps. liii. 4.

Shakespeare has,

" Struck in years."-Rich. III. i. I.

- (5) Wreathen sometimes occurs as the p.p. of wreathe, or writhe.
 - " Wreathen hair."

LATIMER; see *Exodus*, xxviii. 14, 22, 24, 25.

The M.E. past of wrethe was wrooth or wroth. In the sixteenth century we find writhe used as a past tense.

" He writhe her necke in sonder."

STUBS, The Anatomie of Abuses, p. 67, ed. 1585.

(6) "He grop [griped] an axe, that was ful god."

HAVELOK, 1. 1776.

(7) "I thair chaulis raf [rived] in tua."

Cursor Mundi, G. p. 433.

(8) "He slod [slid] slizle a-down."

Will. of Palerne, 1. 792.

(9) "The vapour, which that of the erthe glod [glided]." CHAUCER, C. T. l. 10707.

(10) "And Jacob chode with Laban."

Gen. xxxi. 36.

DIVISION II.—CLASS V.

PRES.	PA	ST PASS. PART.	Pres.	PAST	PASS. PART.
ee, oo		0 0	eo	ea	0
freeze	froze	frozen	freose	freâs	froren
seethe	sod*	sodden,sod* thedl [seethed]	seothe	seâth	soden
cleave		[cleft] cloven[cleft]	cleofe	cleâf	clofen
choose	chose	chosen	ceose	ceâs	coren
lose	[lost]	[lost] lorn,* forlorn	leose	leâs	loren
shoot	shot	shot, shotten*	sceote	sceât	scoten
fly	flew	flown	Heoge, fleohe	fleâh	flogen

(1) Many weak verbs once belonged to this class, as, brook, bow, brew, chew, creep, crowd, dive, flee, fleet (float), lie lose, lock, greet, knot, reek, rue, shove, smoke, snow, suck, slip, tug.

(2) Clave occurs in the Bible for clove (Gen. xx. 3).

Cloven has now only an adjectival force, as in "cloven foot."

"It [sea] clef [claue C.] and gaf him redi gate."

Cursor Mundi, G. 1. 6262.

Cleave, "to cling to," is a weak verb, yet clave is found in Ruth, i. 14, as its past tense.

(3) Lorn = losen, and forlorn = forlosen, are archaic forms. In the O.E. p.p. the s has passed into an r (cp. was and were, &c).

"---After he had fair Una lorn."

Spenser, F. Q. i. 42.

"Thritti yeir es siþen gan þat i mi sun had losen dere."—Cursor Mundi, C. 1. 5363.

(4) Froren = frozen.
"My heart blood is well nigh froren (frozen) I feel."

Ib. Shep. Cal, Feb.

"---The parching air

Burns frore (= frozen) and cold performs th' effect of fire."

MILTON, Par. Lost.

"A froren mur [wall]." - O. E. Miscell. p. 151.

(5) Chosen has replaced the old p.p. coren.

" For hir childe thenne sho him chees."

Cursor Munds, T. 1. 5513.

" He is to-fore alle othre i-coren."

O.E. Misc. p. 98.

(6) Seethe. In the Bible (Gen. xxv. 29), sod = boiled occurs as the past tense.

"Wortes or other herbes

The whiche sche schredde and seeth for hir lyvinge."

CHAUCER, The Clerkes Tale, 1, 227,

"Some (fisch) thei solde and some thei sothe."

Piers Plowman, B. xv. 288.

"Ysothe or ybake."-Ib. p. 278.

"I force not whether it be sodden or roast."

The Four Elements, p. 35, ed. 1874. "Of all manner of dishes both sod and roast."—Ib. p. 25.

(7) "Hit snew [snowed] to hem as hit were floure."

Cursor Mundi, T. 1. 6381.

192. Some verbs that have now strong past tense or passive participle, were once weak.

Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.
betide	betid*	[betid]
dig	dug	dug
	digged*	digged*
hide ·	hid	hidden, [hid]
rot	[rotted]	rotten
show	[showed]	shown
	[shewed]	[shewed, showed]
stick	stuck	stuck
	stack*	
strew	[strewed]	strown
spit	spit,* spat	spat, spitten*
saw	[sawed]	sawn
wear	wore	worn
	ware*	

The past tenses betid, hid, spit, spat, are only apparently strong. The M.E. forms betid-de, hid-de, spit-te, spat-te, (cp. swat-te, sweated) were weak.

¹ Forms marked thus * are archaic. Forms in brackets are weak.

193. ALPHABETICAL LIST OF STRONG VERBS. 1

193. ALPHABETICAL LIST OF STRONG VERBS.					
Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.			
abide	abode	abode			
arise	arose	arisen			
awake	awoke	awoke			
	awaked*	awaked			
bake	UTT - DIVIDIO	baken			
	baked	baked			
bear (bring forth)	bore, bare*	born			
bear (carry)	bore, bare*	borne			
beat	beat	beaten			
begin	began	begun			
behold	beheld	beholden, beheld			
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid			
bind	bound	bounden,* bound			
bite	bit	bitten, bit			
blow	blew	blown			
break	broke, brake*	broken			
burst	burst	burst, bursten*			
chide	chode,* chid	chidden, chid			
choose	chose, chase*	chosen			
cleave (split)	clove	cloven			
	clave*	_			
	cleft	cleft			
cling	clung	clung			
climb	clomb	_			
	climbed	climbed			
cling	clang	clung			
come	came	come			
crow	crew	crown			
	crowed	crowed			
do	did	done			
draw	drew	drawn			
drink	drank	drunk, drunken			
drive	drove, draye*	driven			
eat	ate	eaten			
fall	fell	fallen ·			

The forms in italics are weak. Those marked thus are archaic.

Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.
fight	fought	foughten*, fought
find	found	found
fling	flung, flang*	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
	forgat*	forgot*
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
		frorn, frore*
get	got, gat*	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave	graved	graven
en-grave		en-graven*
J	engraved	engraved .
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
100	hanged	hanged
heave	hove	_
	heaved	heaved
help		holpen
	helped	helped
hew	diament .	hewn
	hewed	hewed
hold	held	held, holden
know	knew	known
lade	_	laden, loaden
	laded	laded
lie	lay	lain, lien*
lose	_	lorn, forlorn
	lost	lost
melt		molten
	melted	melted
mow	_	mown
	mowed	morwed
ride	rode, rid*	ridden, rid*
ring	rang, rung*	rung

Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.
rise	rose	risen
rive	- 100	riven
	rived	rived
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
seethe	sod	sodden, sod.
	seethed	seethed
shake	shook	shaken
shave	shaved	shaven, shaved
shear -	sheared, shore.	shorn, sheared
shine	shone	shone
	shined	shined*
shoot	shot	shot, shotten*
shrink	shrank	shrunk
	shrunk*	shrunken
sing	sang, sung*	sung
sink	sank	sunk, sunken
sit	sat	sat, sitten*
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid, slidden
sling	slung, slang*	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote, smit*	smitten, smit*
sow		sown
	sowed	sowed
speak	spoke, spake*	spoken
spin	spun, span*	spun
spring	sprung, sprang*	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole, stale*	stolen
sting	stung, stang*	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode, strid*	stridden
strike	struck	struck
		stricken
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn

sware*

swelled

swell

swollen, swelled

Pres.	Past	Pass. Part.
swim	swam, swum*	swam
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore, tare*	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
23401	thrived	thrived
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	woke	I IS TO THE OWNER OF
	waked	waked
weave	wove	woven
win	won, wan*	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung, wrang*	wrung
write	wrote, writ*	written

Weak Verbs.

194. The strong conjugation comprehends all primitive verbs; to the weak belong all derivative and borrowed verbs.

The weak conjugation is sometimes called the regular conjugation, because the formation of the past tense of weak verbs by means of the suffix d, is the ordinary method now in use. The method of forming the past tense by reduplication and by vowel change, is quite obsolete. Children and uneducated persons often make the strong verbs conform to the weak conjugation, and say seed for saw, &c. We have done exactly the same with regard to many old verbs, as, shoved for shof, brewed for brew. &c.

195. Weak Verbs form their past tense by means of the suffix -d or -t.

In old English we find that this ending had a longer form -de, as, Ic ner-e-de *I saved*. This -de represents a more primitive dede = did, which is the past tense, (formed by reduplication) of the verb do.

I loved = I love-did; thou lovedest = thou love-didst. &c.

- 196. The suffix -d is united to the root by the connecting vowel -e, as, lov-e-d, command-e-d.
- (r) The connecting vowel, though preserved in writing, is dropped in pronunciation, except when the verbal root ends in a dental. Thus we loved, praised, thanked, are pronounced lovd, praizd, thankt; but in commanded, and lifted, the -ed has, necessarily, its full pronunciation.

The verbs of this class in O.E. had the radical vowel short.

For the reason of the change of d to t, see § p. 63, 45.

- 197. The passive participles also end in d or t. This suffix has not the same origin as the d of the past tense.
- 198. The following verbs have no connecting vowel, and are sometimes called *contracted* verbs:—
- (2) a. Before the addition of the suffix -d, the radical vowel is shortened.

Pres.	Past	Pass. Par
hear	heard	heard
shoe	shod	shod
flee	fled	fled

b. If the root ends in d, the suffix -d is dropped, and the radical vowel is shortened.

feed	fed	fed
lead	led	led
read	red	red

In the O.E. the past tenses of a and b were the same: cp. O.E.

	ini.	Past	Pass Par
a.	hŷr-an (hear)	hyr-de	hŷr-ed
	fêd -an (feed)	fêd-de	fêd-ed
8.	læd-an (lead)	læd-de	lêd-ed

Flee was originally strong, see p. 140; meet, met, met has conformed to lead, &c. Cp. O. E. mêtan, mêt-te, mêt-ed.

In E.E. we find the shortened p.p. fed, led, &c. The loss of the final e of the past tense, in the fifteenth century, reduced the past tense and the p.p. to the same form: thus, ledde became ledd, or led.

In some few verbs ending in a liquid, or combination of liquids, t has replaced the older d.

	Inf.	Past	Pass. Part.
	feel	felt	felt
	deal	dealt	dealt
	smell	smelt	smelt
	mean	meant	meant
	dream	dreamt	dreamt
	burn	burnt	burnt
Cp. O.E.	dæl-an	dæl-de	gedæl-ed
20	bærn-an	bærn-de	bærn-ed

(3) The suffix -d (-t) is often dropped after d, t, st, rt, ft, and the present, past, and passive participle, are identical in form.

rid	rid	rid
shred	shred	shred
set	set	set
shut	shut	shut
cut	cut	cut
put	put	put
hurt	hurt	hurt
lift	lift1	lift
thrust *	thrust	thrust
cast	cast	cast

In O.E. ria and set were

Inf.	Past	Pass. Part.
â-hreddan	âhred-de	â-hredd-ed
sett-an	set-te	sett-ed, set

Shut, put, shred, spread, were perhaps similarly conjugated. Cut, put, hurt, lift, &c. are not found in O.E.

In Middle English the past tense had a form distinct from

¹ In the English Bible.

the pass. participle, as, ridde, shredde, sette, cutte, &c. We have now longer forms for some of the M.E. shorter ones; cp. reste = rested; wette = wetted, &c. O.E. scyl-de = shielded; stylte = stilted.

(4) The suffix -t replaces d after p, f, s, ch, v. The radical vowel, if long, is shortened.

Inf.	Past	Pass. Part
creep	crept	crept
weep	wept	wept
kiss	kist	kist
lose	lost	lost
pitch	pight	pight*
leave	left	left
cleave	cleft	cleft

The v in leave, cleave, bereave, was originally f. In M.E. crept, wept in the past tense were crepte, wepte: and also crep, wep, (strong forms).

(5) Verbs ending in ld, nd, rd, changed the d of the root into t, and the tense suffix is dropped.

build	built	built
gild	guilded, gilt	gilt
bend	bent	bent
send	sent	sent
gird	girt	girt

The t in the past tense of built, &c., stands for an original d + de, which became de, then te, and, lastly, t. This last

change took place during the fourteenth century.

In Elizabethan writers we meet with the longer forms, builded, &c., and we have also two participial forms, the contracted, and the uncontracted, with slightly different meanings, as, gilt and gilded, bent and bended, blent and blended.

In O.E. we find only the long forms of the p.p., as, gyrd-ed,

send-ed, &c.

(6) Some few verbs have vowel-change with the addition of d or t in the past tense.

(a)	tell	told	told
	sell	sold	sold
(6)	seek	sought	sought
10000	teach	taught	taught

The change of vowel in these verbs is not the same as that in the strong verbs. It is the present that has changed. The root of tell is tal, which we preserve in tale, and tal-k. Cp. sell and sale. Between the root and the infinitive suffix there was once an i, which turned the a to e; thus, root tal, whence tali-en, modified to teli-en or tell-en. Cp. man, men. The o in told, sold, represents the older a of tale, talk, which was never modified by the lost suffix -i.

The t in sought, &c., is due to the sharp k or c in seek. Under the influence of t, the guttural has become h, or gh.

In the seventeenth century we find rought, raught, straught, the past tenses of reck, reach, stretch.

In M.E. we had roughte = recked; raughte = reached; straughte = stretched; laughte = latched, seized.

The verbs of this class were in O.E. contracted in past tense and pass. part.

199. The following weak verbs have some peculiarities that need explanation.

Catch, caught, caught. This verb of Norman-French origin has followed the past tense &c. of E.E. *lacchen*, to catch, take; *lahte* (past).

Analogous to caught we find fraught, as well as freighted; and distraught for distracted; also raught = reached in Shakespeare, Love's Labour Lost, IV. 2, 4I; raught also = reft. Cp. 2 Hen. VI. II. 3, 43.

"I raught his head from his body."

Pierce Penilesse, p. 82.

Clothe, clad, clad. In O.E. we find clâthian, (inf.) clâthode (past), clâthod (p.p.), = M.E. clothe (clethe), clothede (clethede, cledde), cled, clad.

In M.E. we find *ledde*, *ladde*, = *led*, which has probably led to *clad* through *cled* = *cledde* = *clethde*.

[Chap.

Make, made, made. Made lost its radical k as early as the thirteenth century. In the fourteenth we find in the Northern dialects ma (inf) and mas = makes. Cp. M.E. $ta = to \ take$, tas = takes, tan = taken.

Have, had, had; O.E. habban, hæfde, hæfed; E.E.

have, hefde (hedde, hadde), ihafd (ihad).

There was also a short form ha, to have, from which comes has = haves. In the M.E. Northern dialect we find has. See Bruce, xiii. 642, (ed. Skeat).

Say, said, said; O.E. secgan, sægde, sægd.

Lay, laid, laid; O.E. lecgan, lecgde, lecgd.

In say, lay (M.E. seve, leve), the y represents the

older cg (g).

Buy, bought, bought; O.E. bycgan, bohte, boht. In M.E. buggen, bugge = to buy: and here the y represents an older g which makes its appearance in the past tense. Cp. slay and slaughter.

Think, thought, thought; O.E. thencan, thôhte,

thôht.

The n is not radical; cp. gange and go; stand and stood.

(Me)thinks, (me)thought, (me)thought; O.E. thyncth, thuhte, thûht.

Work, wrought, wrought; O.E. wyrcan, worhte, worht.

Wrought, as a past tense, is almost superseded by the more modern form, worked.

Went was originally the past tense of wend. O.E. wendan, to turn, go. It replaced the O.E. eo-de, M.E. sede, sode, vode (past tense of the root i to go).

Go (old form gang) was originally a strong verb.

as is seen by its p.p. gone.

Ago = agone is the p.p. of the O.E. verb agan,

to go by, elapse. It is now used adverbially, as "a long time ago."

"By Saint Mary, and I wist that, I would be ago."
HICKSCORNER, p. 167, ed. 1874.

"Who, think you, brought here this figure? Certes, Lord Nature, Himself not long agone."

The Four Elements, p. 28, ed. 1874.

Do, did, done, is a reduplicated verb, and of course belongs to the strong conjugation of verbs.

The Sanskrit dhâ to place is cognate with English do, and its perfect dadhau is formed by reduplication, like English did.

Verbal Inflexions.

PERSONAL ENDINGS.

200. Verbs are of two kinds, primary and derivative. All the strong verbs are of primary origin; the weak verbs are of secondary formation. To bear is a primary verb, because it is formed directly from the root, bar; but tell, as we have seen (p. 157), is formed from the nominal theme, tale, and is therefore a derivative verb.

The root is the significant element in the verb, to which are added endings to mark person, tense, or mood.

Sometimes the personal terminations are added directly to the verbal root, as in do-st, do-th, or by means of a connecting vowel, as in lov-e-st, lov-e-th.

The person-endings were originally pronominal roots placed after, and compounded with, the verbal

root or theme, as if we were to say love-I, love-thou, love-he, &c.

201. The suffix of the first person singular, was originally m (for mi), which we still retain in the verb, a-m.

Cp. Lat. su-m, Gr. &-u, Sansk. as-mi = I am, Ger. bin, O.H.G. pim, O.E. (Northern) beom, I be.

202. The suffix of the second person singular is -st; it was originally -t, which can be traced back to a suffix -ti, identical in origin with the root of thou. In the subjunctive mood this suffix is altogether lost.

The original t occurs in shal-t, wil-t, ar-t.

Strong verbs in O.E. lost this t of ti, and the second person singular ends only in e; as, heold-e = held-e-st, didst hold.

This -st belonged only to weak verbs in the earliest period, but it was gradually extended to strong verbs in the fourteenth century.

203. The suffix of the third person is -th (the root of the, tha-t) = he, that. As early as the eleventh century, in the Northern dialects, th was softened to s; but the former is now archaic.

In the past tense of strong and weak verbs, the endings in the first and third persons singular have altogether disappeared.

204. In modern English we have no plural suffixes. In O.E. the indicative present plural of all persons ended in -th (originally the ending of the second person plural), as (1) ber-a-th; (2) ber-a-th; (3) ber-a-th.

The past indicative and the subjunctive (present and past) ended all their persons in -n (the original suffix of the third person plural); as, subjunctive present find-e-n; indicative past, fund-o-n, and subjunctive past, fund-e-n, or fund-o-n.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, we find the Southern dialect keeping -th for the present plural indicative, the Midland -n, and the Northern dropping all endings, or taking -s in the second and third persons. (See § 49, p. 31).

In O.E. the personal endings were often dropped when the pronoun followed the verbs; as gâ ge = gath ge (go ye); ete we = eten we (eat we, let us eat).

The plural in -en was in use up to the middle of the sixteenth century, and a few examples are to be found in Spenser and Shakespeare; Hall, (contemporary with Milton) uses it in his Satires, eg.

> " And angry bullets whistlen at his ear." vi. 16.

In O.E. the imperative plural ended in -th, as nimath, take ye. In M.E. this ending was kept up in the Midland and Southern dialects, but not in the Northern dialect, where -s was used instead of it.

205. Old English Conjugation of Verbs.

STRONG VERBS.

Active Voice.

Nim-an, to take.

Pres. Inf. nim-an

Past nam Pass. Part. num-en

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present (and Future) Tense.

Sing. I. ic nim-e 2. thû nim-est 3. he nim-eth

Plur. we nim-ath ge nim-ath hi nim-ath

Past Tense.

I. ic nam

2. thû nâm-e 3. he nam we nam-on ge nam-on hi nam-on 1Chap

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ic nim-e 2. thû nim-e 3. he nim-e we nim-en ge nim-en hi nim-en

Past Tense.

ic nâm-e
 thû nâm-e
 he nâm-e

we nām-en^x ge nâm-en hi nâm-en

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

nim
Simple Inf.

nim-ath

Pres. Part.

Dative Inf.

Pass. Part.

WEAK VERBS.

Active Voice.

Infin. ner-i-an (save) luf-i-an (love) hŷr-an (hear) Preterite. ner-e-de luf-o-de hŷr-de

Pas. Part. ner-e-d luf-o-d hŷr-e-d

¹ The oldest form of the past subjunctive piural ending was en, which afterwards became -on.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present (and Future) Tense.

Sing. I. neri-e, lufig-e, hŷr-e

3. ner-eth, luf-ath, hŷr-eth

2. neri-est, luf-ast, hŷr-est

Plur. I. neri-ath, lufi-ath, hŷr-ath

2. neri-ath, lufi-ath, hor-ath 3. neri-ath, lufi-ath, hŷr-ath

Past Tense.

I. ner-e-de, luf-o-de, hŷr-de

2. ner-e-de-st, luf-o de-st, hor-de-st

3. ner-e-de, luf-o de, hŷr-de

I. ner-e-d-on, luf-o-d-on, hŷr-d-on

2. ner-e-d-on, luf-o-d-on, hŷr-d-on

3. ner-e-d-on, luf-o-d-on, hŷr-d-on

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. 2. neri-e, lufig-e, hŷr-e 2. neri-en, lufig-en, hŷr-en 3.

Imperfect Tense.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. 2. ner-e, luf-a, hor

Plur. 2. neri-ath, lufi-ath, hŷr-ath

Simple Infin. neri-an, lufi-an, hŷr-an

Dative Infin. neri-anne, lufi-anne, hŷr-anne

Pres. Participle. neri-ende, lufig-ende, hŷr-ende

> Pass. Participle. ner-e-d, luf-o-d, hŷr-e-d

Infinitive Mood.

206. The infinitive is simply an abstract noun. In O.E. the infinitive ending was -an, as drinc-an, to drink.

In the twelfth and following centuries, this -an became -en (-in) or e.

In Wickliffe, the suffix is for the most part -e; in Chaucer -en or -e. This -e after a time became silent, and the infinitive was only distinguished by the preposition to (except after an auxiliary verb), which at first belonged only to the dative or gerundial infinitive.

"As ha schulde stupin and streeche forth that swire (neck)."

Fuliana, B. p. 73, A.D. 1210.

"In ful a bitter bath bathien ich schal naked."

O. E. Miscell. p. 180, A.D. 1246.

"In a bytter bath ich schal bathe naked."

Ib. p. 181, later version.

"To bakbite, and to bosten: and bere fals witnesse."

Piers Flowman, B. ii. 80.

The infinitive in O.E. was inflected for the dative by the suffix -e, and was governed by the preposition to; as, tô gehyrann-e, to hear. This is sometimes called the gerundial infinitive, in contradistinction to the simple or uninflected infinitive.

It was used chiefly to express purpose; it translated also Lat. supines, gerunds, future participles, and ut with the subjunctive; as, "what went ye out for to see," "he is to blame," &c.

Latin supine in -um.

- "Sôthlîce ût eode se sædere his sæd to savenne."
- = Verily outwent the sower to sow his seed.

Matt. xiii. 4.

Latin periphrastic conjugation in -rus and -dus.

"We selfe mâgon seôthan thâ thing the to seôthenne sind, and brædan that thing the to brædenne sind."

= We ourselves may seethe the things that are to be sodden, and roast the things that are to be roasted.

ÆLFRIC.

"Hit is sceamu tô tellanne, ac hit ne thûhte him nân sceamu tô dônne."

=It is shameful to tell, but it appeared to him no shame to do. - Chronicle, A.D. 1052.

Latin supine in -u.

" Êthe ... to findanne." = Easy to find.

Ps. lxxvi. 16.

Latin genitive of gerund.

" Mihte to forlætenne."

= Power of forgiving, or to forgive. John xix. 10.

Sometimes we find the dative infinitive used to mark the future.

"Thone calic be ic to drincenne hæbbe."

= The cup that I have to drink.

"Ic tô drincenne hæbbe."

Matt. xx. 22. = Lat. bibiturus sum.

The gerundial ending not only took the same form as the simple infinitive, but it was often confounded with the present participle in -ende, or -inde (later -inge) in E. E. and M.E.

"Thenne beginne we to fleonne ant turneth to the luste, ant this is al that we doth te deruen cristene men ant eggin to then uuele."-Juliana, p. 44.

"The synfulle (fasteth) for to clensen him, the rightwise for to witiende his rightwisnesse."-O.E. Hom. II. p. 57.

"And 3af it to thre hondred vultures to etynge."—Trevisa, III. p. 131. Caxton's version has "for to ete."

"Also he fonde up . . newe manere titles and strikes to write amonge the lettres that were listere in wrytinge and to spekynge."—Ib. III. p. 249.

That the participle in -nde could be confounded with the inf. in -en is seen in the following passage: -

"But thanke God of heuen for that he hath the zeuene
And so thou schalt, my douztir, a good lijf lyvande."

Babes Book, p. 43.

Participles.

207. The present participle is formed by the suffix -ing, which has replaced M.E. -inde, -ende; O.E. -end.

The modern form -ing made its appearance in the Southern dialects in the latter part of the twelfth century; but the older form in -ande was retained in the Northern dialects up to a very late period. (Cp. Ben Jonson's Sad Shepherd, ii. 2). Spenser has the archaic forms glitterand and trenchand for glittering and trenchant.

This change of -inde to -ing has caused great confusion between verbal nouns in -ing (O.E. -ung) and participles in -ing (see p. 133).

"Wommen zeueth lyf and fedynde to Kynges."

Trevisa, 111. p. 183.

Here fedynde = feeding = sustenance. See $O.\hat{E}$. Hom. II. p. 177, l. 23.

The Passive participle in the oldest period had a prefix ge, which, after the Norman Conquest, was

reduced to (i, y, e). Milton has yclept = called. He wrongly adds it to a present participle in "star

y-pointing."

The passive participle of all strong verbs ended in en. In the thirteenth century we find n falling away; as, ifunde = found; ibunde = bound; very many of our strong verbs have lost their passive participles, and others at one time showed a tendency to do the same. Cp. spoke and eat in Shakspeare, for spoken and eaten.

The passive participle of weak verbs ended in -d; as, lov-e-d. The primitive form was -th, which is still preserved in un-cou-th, literally unknown; couth (O.E. cuth) being the p.p. of can.

The adjectival character of the verbal suffixes -en (-n) and -ed, is seen by comparing them with the endings in gold-en, silken; hotheaded, or e-eyed, &c.

Anomalous Verbs.

208. Be. The conjugation of the substantive verb contains three distinct roots, as, be, was.

Indicative Mood. Present Tense.

Plur.

	- 0m	-	0 20 .
	r. am	1.	are
	2. art	2.	are
	3. is	3.	are
	Past Tense.		
ſ.	was	I.	were
2.	wast, wert*	2.	were
3.	was	3.	were
	* Obsolete,		

Sing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. Plur. 1, 2, 3. be I, 2, 3, be

Past Tense.

1, 2, 3. were I, 2, 3. Were 2. wert

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. be 2. be Infinitive to be Present Participle being Passive Participle been

The oldest forms are :-

., plur.

Pres. indic. sing. I. eo-m, beo-m, beo 2. ear-t, bis-t 3. is, bi-th (sind, sind-on Plural I, 2, 3. beo-th ar-on

Past indic. sing. I, wæs 2. wære

> 3. wæs I, 2, 3. wær-on

" plur. Pres. subj. sing. 1, 2, 3. wes-e, beo, si

,, plur. I, 2, 3, wes-en, beo-n, sî-n Past. subj. sing. 1, 2, 3. wær-e

,, plur. I, 2, 3. wær-en 2. wes, beo Imper. sing.

> wes-ath, beo-th 2. wes-an, beo-n Infin. Act. part. wes-ende

Pass. part. gewes-en In the thirteenth century sindon (are) gives place to beoth,

or beth. In M.E. are becomes very common.

Wesan (infin.) seems to have dropped out of use in the twelfth century, leaving been or ben as the ordinary form in use. About the same time gewesen (p.p.) disappeared, and a new p.p. ibeon (ben) came into use.

In M.E. we find the pres. part. be-ende = be-ing.

Negative forms were common in the first three periods. Cp. O.E. neom (am not), neart (art not), nis (is not), næs (was not), næron (were not).

A-m (= ar-m = as-m) contains the root as, and m, the ending of the first person.

Ar-t (= as-t) has the old -t of the second person, as in shal-t, wil-t, &c.

Is (= as = as-th) has lost its suffix -th.

Are (= ase) represents the old Northern ar-on, and is of Scandinavian origin. It has altogether replaced the O.E. sind.

Was. This is the past tense of the strong verb, wesan to be. It has therefore no endings to mark the first and third persons.

Was-t. The true form would be were (O.E. ware) but wast arose in the fourteenth century, through the use of was as a second person in Northern writers of the thirteenth century.

"With ropes were thou bounde."

FABYAN, Chronicle, p. 430.

"How were thow than baptized?"

MERLIN, p. 428.

"Before the sun, before the heavens thou wert."

MILTON, Par. Lost.

Wer-t for wast has evidently been formed from the older were (=w@re). It has established itself as a subjunctive form.

Were (= wes-en) has, like are, lost its personal endings.

The root be was conjugated in the present tense, indicative, as late as Milton's time.

> I be we be (bin)* ve be thou beest he be they be

"If thou beest he."-MILTON, P. L. I. 84.

"If thou be st civil."

BEAUMONT and FLETCHER, I. p. 96. "I think it be thine indeed."-Hamlet.

"We are true men, we are no spies, we be twelve brethren." -Gen. xlii. 32.

" For you be as untrue as I."

HEYWOOD, The Four P.P.

"The Philistines be upon thee."- Judges, xvi. 9.

In M.E. beth and bes are used for the third pers, sing, indic.: and for the third pers, future, instead of our shall be,

200. Worth = be.

This verb occurs in the English Bible.

" Wo worth the day"

= woe be to the day. - Ezek. xxx, 2.

"Wo worth the faire gemme vertuelesse! Wo worth that herb also that doth no boote!

Wo worth that beaute that is routheles!

Wo worth that wyght that tret ech under foote!"

CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr. II. 49. 11. 344-7.

The O.E. wearthan (pret. wearth, p.p. worden) to become, occasionally replaced wesan and beon, to be. In M E. worthe = to be, as well as to become. In the third person worth = shall be.

- "What shal worthe of us."-M. Arth. 1. 1817, ed. Furnivall.
- " For-bi I conseille alle be comune to lat the catte worthe." Piers Plowman, B. Prol. 1. 187.

"To-morwe worth ymade be maydenes bruydale."

Ib. 11. 1. 43.

"This maide werth a slepe."-Early Eng. Poems, xxi. 38.

^{*} Archaic.

210. Can.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tonse.

			7 , 000,00 7 0,0001		
		Sing.	1		Plur.
I.	can			I.	can
2.	canst			2.	can
3.	can			3.	can
			Past Tense.		

rast rens

2. couldst (couldest)
3. could

r. could

3. could

In O.E. can was thus conjugated :-

	Sing.	Plur.
Pres. Indic.	I. can, con	1. cunn-on
	2. can-st	2. ,,
	3. can	3. ,,
Past Indic.	1. cu-the	I. cu-th-on
	2. cu-th-est	2. ,,
	3. cu-the	3. ,,
Pres. Subj. 1, 2,	3. cunn-e	I, 2, 3. cunn-on
Past Subj. 1, 2,		1, 2, 3. cu-th-on
Pass. Part.	cu-th	Infin. cunn-an

Can (1st and 3rd persons) has no personal suffix, because it was originally a strong form signifying I knew. Cp. shall, may, wot, &c.

Coul-d (= O.E. cu-the, M.E. couthe, cou-de) is a weak form. The letter 1 has crept in from false analogy to the past tenses of shall and will.

"And the Normans ne couthe speke tho bote hor owe speche."

—Spec. of E. Eng. 1. A. 215.

The verb can (con) once signified to be able, to know.

"Thou shalt never conne knowen."

CHAUCER.

"Thou schalt not kunne seie nay."

PECOCK, Skeat's Spec. p. 50

"I can many a quaint game."

The World and the Child, O.E. Plays, I. p. 245.

"I trow thou canst but little skill of play."-Ib. I. p. 261.

"For we be clerks all, and can our neck verse."

HICKSCORNER, O.E. Plays, I. p. 159.

"A mous that moche good couthe (knew)."

Piers Plowman, B. p. 8.

"O she could the art of woman most feelingly."

WEBSTER, ed. Dyce, p. 250.

Shakespeare has "to con thanks" = to acknowledge or give thanks.

"I can thee thank."—The Four Elements, O.E. Plays, I. p. 47. "So give me som thynge that I may conne the thanke for."

Merlin, p. 73.

"Lutel thonk ye me cuthe." - O.E. Misc. p. 81, 1. 274.

"Thai conned [cund C.] him ful litel thank."

Cursor Mundi, F. 1. 6398.

Con, learn, study (con a lesson), has conned for past tense and p.p.

Cunning (adj.) = knowing, is a present participle of can, or con. It is also found as an abstract noun = knowledge.

"And yhit thai er ful unkunand."

HAMPOLE, P. of C. 1. 152.

" Cunning Latin books."

The Four Elements, O.E. Plays, 1. 7.

"Works of cunning."-Ib.

"Nother (neither) virtue nor no other cunning."

Ib. p. 22.

Couth in uncouth is the old p.p. of can. See Chaucer's C. T. Prol. 1, 14.

"Mayde to the he send (sends) his sonde (message)
And wilneth (wishes) for to beo (be) the cuth (known)."

O.E. Misc. p. 96, l. 104.

211. Dare.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Sing.	1	Plur.
	dare	I.	dare
2.	darest (dar'st)	2.	dare
3.	dares (dare)	3.	dare

Past Tensc.

I.	durst	I.	durst
2.	durst	2.	durst
3.	durst	3.	durst

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.
Sing. 1, 2, 3. dare	Sing. 1, 2, 3. durst
Plur. 1, 2, 3. dare	Plur. 1, 2, 3. durst

Old English conjugation of Dare.

		Sing.		Plur.
Pres. Indic.	I.	dear	I.	durr-on
	2.	dears-t	2.	,,
	3.	dear	3.	,,
Past Indic.	1.	dors-te	I.	dors-t-on
	2.	dors-t-est	2.	,,
	3.	dors-te	3.	,,
Pres. Subj.	1, 2, 3.	durr-e	1, 2, 3.	durr-on
Past Subj.	1, 2, 3.	dors-te	1, 2, 3.	dorst-on
Inf.		durr-an		

Dare. The root is dars, which appears in the past tense, durst.

The old 3rd person singular dare (M.E. dar) has given place to dares, the former being used only in

the subjunctive mood. Cp. Tempest, iii. 2, Rich. II. v. 5.

Dare, to challenge, makes a new past tense and p.p. dared. Cp. owe, ought, and owed.

212. Shall.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	Present Tense.		
Sing.			Plur.
1. shall		I.	shall
2. shalt		2.	shall
3. shall		3.	shall

Past Tense.

ı.	should	1.	should
2.	shouldst, shouldest	2.	should
3.	should	3.	should

Shall was conjugated in O.E. as follows :-

			Sing.		Plur.
Pres. Indic.	1		sceal	I.	scul-on
	. 2	2.	sceal-t	2.	,,
	" 3	3.	sceal	3.	,,
Past Indic.	I		sceol-de	I.	sceol-d-on
	2	2.	sceol-d-est	2.	,,
	3	3.	sceol-de	3.	"
Pres. Subj.	1, 2, 3	3.	scyl-e 1, 2,	3.	scyl-en
Past Subj.	1, 2, 3	3.	sceol-de 1, 2,	3.	sceol-d-on
Infin.			scul-an		

One of the oldest senses of shall is owe.

[&]quot; And by that feith I shal to God and yow." CHAUCER, Tr. and Cr. 1, 1600

- "Voryef me thet ich the ssel."
- = Forgive me that I owe thee.

Ayenbite, p. 115.

" Hu micel scealt thû."

= How much owest thou.

Luke xvi. 5.

"Ân, se hym sceolde tŷn thûsend punda."
= One that owed him ten thousand pounds.

Matt. xviii. 24.

Another early meaning arising from the notion of debt is obligation, necessity; hence shall often signifies ought, must.

" Be ûre æ he sceal sweltan."

=By our law he ought to die.

John xix. 7.
"Men seyn, sche schalle endure in that forme."

MAUNDEVILLE, p. 4.

"Thou shalt not steal."

"You should listen more attentively."

It must be recollected that shall is only a tense auxiliary, that is a sign of the future, in the *first* person. The following doggerel lines point out the distinctive uses of shall and will.

"In the first person simply shall foretells,
In will a threat, or else a promise dwells;
Shall, in the second and the third, does threat;
Will simply then foretells a future feat."

Grimm supposes that the original meaning of shal is I have killed, I must pay the fine or (wergehl); hence, I am obliged, I must. The idea of failure, offence, guilt, is seen in Sansk. skhal, to fail; Lat. scelus, fault, crime.

A strange mingling of should and owe occurs in Fabyan's

Chronicle, p. 257.

"Obedience that he should owe (= owed) to the see of Canterbury."

213. Will.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. Sing. Plur. r. will I. will 2. wilt 2. will 3. will 3. will

Past Tense.

1. would	I. would
2. wouldst	2. would
3. would	3. would

1

ries. Subj.	1, 2, 3.	WILLE	1,	2, 3.	WIII-CII
Past Subj.	1, 2, 3.	wol-de	I,	2, 3.	wol-d-on
Infin.		will-an	Pres.	Part.	will-ende

The original meaning of will is to desire, wish (cp. Lat. volo).

In M.E. we find a form wol, will, which still survives in won't = wol not. Nill = will not, occurs in Hamlet, v. 1; Taming of the Shrew, ii. 1.

In O.E. we find two weak verbs, willan and willian, to desire, wish. Willan survives in the verb will, to desire, be willing, to exercise the will, which is conjugated regularly as an independent verb: 1. will, 2. willest, 3. willeth, wills, &c., past tense willed. But we often find in the older periods the two forms mixed up.

"Wel azte ihe willen hire to wif."

Fl. and Bl. p. 67.

"They ne shuld not willen so."

CHAUCER, R. 6923.

"Gif thu wilt, thu miht me geclænsian: Ic wille; beo geclænsod."

="If thou wilt, thou mayest make me clean. I will; be cleansed."—Matt. viii. 2, 3.

" Abraham wald in his liue,

That Ysaac had wed a wiue."

Cursor Mundi, G. l. 3215.

"Abraham willed in his lyue,
That Isaac hadde weddede a wyue."

1b. T.

"For in evil, the best condition is not to will; the second, not to can."—BACON, Ess. xi.

The old p.p. wold for wild, or willed, was in use as late as the beginning of the sixteenth century.

> "The fomy bridel with the bitte of gold, Governeth he ryght as himselfe hath wolde."

CHAUCER, Leg. Didonis, 1. 284.

"How be it he myghte have entred the cytie if he had wolde. (= wished).—FABYAN, Chronicle, p. 625.

214. May.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.

1. may
2. mayst, mayest
3. may
3. may

Plur.
1. may
2. may
3. may
3. may

N

Past Tense. Plur. 1. might 2. mightst, mightest 2. might

3. might

The oldest forms of may are :-

Sing.

1. might

3. might

		Sing.	Plur.
Pres. Indic.	I.	mæg	I. mâgon
	2.	meah-t	2. ,,
	3.	mæg.	3. ,,
Past. Indic.	I.	meah-te	I. meah-t-on
Pres. Subj.	1, 2, 3.	mâge	I, 2, 3. mâg-en
Past Subj.	I, 2, 3.	meah-te	I, 2, 3. meah-t-on
Infin. mag-an	Pres.	Part. mæg-ende.	Pass. Part. meah-t

The y in may represents an older g (cp. Ger. mögen). Sometimes g passes into w, hence the M.E. I mow, I may; I mought, I might; pres. part. mowende, mowynge; pass. part. moght.

Mayst is a new form that arose in M.E. for mih-t. (See Chaucer's Astrolabe, p. 3).

May has the force of the Lat. posse, to be able. It is the preterite of an old root mag, to increase, grow, which exists in mai-n, (O.E. mæg-en), migh-t.

- " Helle gatu ne magon ongean be."
- = Hell's gates cannot prevail against thee.

Matt. xvi. 18.

- "Thatt ifell gast ma33 oferr tha Thatt follshen barrness thæwess."
- =The evil ghost has power over those that follow bairns' habits.

Orm. 1. p. 279.

"If thou maist ony thing, help us."

WICKLIFFE, Mark ix. 4.

"Thai salle mow passe aywhare thai wille."

HAMPOLE, P. of C. 1. 7993.

"As nere as they shall mowe (be able)."

Nat. MSS. I. 20, Hen. VII. Quoted in Earle's Phil. of Eng. Tongue, p. 284.

"To lakken mowynge (power) to done yuel."

CHAUCER, Boethius, ed. Morris, p. 124.

Plur.

215. Owe.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. Sing. owe I. owe 2. owest 2. owe

3. oweth 3. owe

Past Tense.

I.	ought	I.	ought
2.	oughtest	2.	ought
3.	ought	3.	ought

Inf. owe Pres. Part. owing

O. E. forms of Owe :-

	Sing.	Plur.
Pres. Indic.	ı. âh	ı. âg-on
	2. âg-e	2. ,,
	3. âh	3. ,,
Pact India	r âh-te	r 2 2 âh-t-on

Infin. âg-an; Pres. Part. âg-ende; Pass. Part. âg-en.

In M.E. we find some new forms, as, owest (= âge); ought and owed (= agen, p.p.).

The original meaning of owe is to possess, have; whence the secondary notion, to have as a duty, to owe, to be under an obligation.

Oughte is of course a weak past tense, and is now

180

used as a present and past tense to signify moral obligation.

When owe signifies to be in debt, it is conjugated

regularly.

1. Owe, 2. owest, 3. owes, oweth, &c.; past tense and p.p. owed.

Ought, in older writers, is used as the past tense of owe, to be in debt.

"Thu Julde thet thou ouhtest."

= Thou didst pay what thou didst owe.

Ancren Riwle, p. 406.

[Chap.

"He owste to him 10,000 talents."

WICKLIFFE, Matt. xviii. 24.

"One of his fellow servants which ought him an hundred pence."—Becon, 1. 154.

"There of the Knight, the which that castle ought,
To make abode that night he greatly was besought."

SPENSER, F. O. VI. iii. 2.

See Shakspeare's I Henry IV. iii. 3.

Own is a derivative of owe.

Examples of owe as an independent verb :-

"Hwæt dô ic thæt ic êce lîf âge?"

= What must I do that I may have everlasting life?

Mark, x. 17.

" Ahte ic geweald."

= Had I power.—Cad. p. 23, 1. 32.

"The mon the lutel ah."

=The man that has little.—Laz. 3058.

"To makien hire cwen of al thet he ouhte."

= To make her queen of all that he possessed.

Ancren Riwle, p. 390.

"Steuen that the lond auht."

R. OF BRUNNE, Chronicle, 1. 3092.

"Ye shal owe and have everlasting life."

Gest. Rom. p. 29.

"I am not worthy of the wealth I owe."

All's Well that Ends Well, II. 5.

" Owing her heart, what need you doubt her ear."

FORD.

Owe as an auxiliary appears in Lazamon's Brut, 1. 8289, "he ah to don" = he has to do, he should do.

"Evel owe no mon to do to other."

Cursor Mundi, T. 1. 1973.

216. Must.

Must was originally the past tense of the old verb, motan (Ger. müssen) to be able, be obliged: it is now used in all persons and tenses, to denote necessity and obligation.

The O.E. forms are:-

Sing. Plur.
Pres. Indic. 1. môt 1. mô-t-on
2. môs t 2. ,,
3. môt 3. ,,
Past Indic. 1. môs-te 1, 2, 3, môs-t-on

The old verb mot had the sense of may, can, must, &c.; and must = might, could, &c.

In the sense of may, mot is found as late as 1522 in The World and the Child.

"But, Sir Frere, evil mot thou the [thrive]."

O.E. Plays, ed. Hazlitt, p. 257.

Spenser occasionally employs it though it had become archaic in his time (see *Faerie Queene*, i. 2, 37).

The s in must does not belong to the root, but was inserted to unite the suffix -t of the second person, and -te of the past tense to the root; most (second person) = mot-s-t = mot-t.

O.E. wast (knowest) = wat-s-t; mo-s-te (past tense) = mot-s-te = mot-te; O.E. wiste (knew) = wit-s-te = wit-te.

217. Wit.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plur
ı. wot	ı. wot
2. wot [wottest] ¹	2. wot
3. wot [wotteth]	3. wot

Past Tense.

1. wist [wotted]	1. wist [wotted]
2. wist	2. wist [wotted]
3. wist [wotted]	3. wist [wotted]

Inf. to wit Pres. Part. witting [wotting]

The O.E. witan was thus conjugated :-

	Sing.	Plur.
Pres. Indic.	I. wât	I. wit-on
	2. wâs-t	2. "
	3. wât	I, 2, 3. ,,
Past Indic.	I. wis-te	wis-t-on
Infin. wit-an.	Pres. Part.	wit-ende. Pass. Part. wit-en.
		[M.E. iwis-t].

Wot was originally the perfect of the root wit (cp. Lat. video, Gr. olda, I know, from 'ίδειν, to see), and meant "I have seen," hence "I know."

Its infinitive to wit is used now only as an adverb = namely.

The pres. part. exists in wittingly.

For the presence of s in wist, see must, § 216, p. 181.

¹ The words in brackets are later tormations.

The pass. part. appears in unwist, unknown, undiscovered (Surrey); and in the old proverb, "beware of had-I-wist," i.e. "beware of saying regretfully had I known."

"Dead long ygoe, I wote, thou haddest bin."

SPENSER, F. Q. i. 2, 20. See Gen. xxi. 26.

"But wottest thou what I say, man."

The World and the Child, O.E. Plays, I. p. 264.

"Again, who wotteth not what words were spoken against St. Paul."—Jewel's Apol. ed. Jelf, p. 3. See Gen. xxxix. 8.

"He wist not what to say."—Mark ix. 6.

"And why he left your court, the gods themselves, wotting no more than I, are ignorant."—Winter's Tale, iii. 2.
"I do thee well to wit."

J. HEYWOOD, the Pardoner and the Friar.

"Wouldest thou wit?"—Everyman, O.E. Plays, I. p. 103.

"For, wit thou well, thou shalt make none attorney."-Ib.

"I woll handle my captive so,

That he shall not well wither to go."

Fack Juggler, O.E. Plays, II. p. 115.

218. Do, in "this will do," has the sense of the Lat. valere. It represents the O.E. dugan, E.E. duhen, avail, be good, (Ger. taugen) cp. doughty = valiant.

O.E. dug-an.

Pres. Indic. Sing. 1. deâh

2. dug-e

3. deâh

,, ,, Plur. I, 2, 3. dug-on Past. Indic. Sing.

"Ring ne broche nabbe 3e...ne no swuch thing thet ou ne deih [= deah]."

= Have neither ring nor broach, nor any such thing that is not good for you to have.—Anuren Rivele, p. 421.

"And sau that his dede litel doht [= did, availed]."

Met. Hom. p. 149.

- " What dowes me the dedayn."
- = What avails me the displeasure.

Allit. Poems, p. 90.

"That nost dowed bot the deth in the depe stremez."

- That nought availed, but the death in the deep streams.

Ib. p. 47.

219. Own = grant, confess, has probably arisen out of O.E. an, (E.E. on) = I grant, unn-on, we grant; O.E. unnan (Ger. gönnen), to grant.

"Ich on wel that 3e witen."

= I own well that ye know. - Kath. 1761.

" 3if thu hit wel unnest."

= If thou well concedest it. - Ancren Riwle, p. 282.

220. Mun = shall, must.

"I mun be married a Sunday."

Ralph Roister Douster, before 1553.

In the fourteenth century mun (mon) as an auxiliary verb = shall, must, was very common in the Northern dialects.

"I mun walke on mi way."-Ant. Arth. xxv. 3.

"---than mon he gyf lyght

Als fer als the sone dose and ferrer."

HAMPOLE, P. of C. p. 246.

"Thai thoght that kynd him mond forbede."

=They thought that nature would forbid him.

C. Mundi, C. l. 1105.

The original meaning of mun, mon, was I have remembered; hence, I intend, mind.

Pres. Perf. Inf.

Ge-man ge-munde ge-munan (meminisse)

Icel. man munda munda muna (recordari)

mun munu μ (μέλλειν)

mundu

"The hertes costes we agen to munen."

= We ought to remember the hart's habits.

O.E. Misc. p. 12. l. 370.

" He wolde mone."

= He would remember.

R. OF BRUNNE, Chronicle, 1, 4811.

221. The verb need, when followed by an infinitive, some-

times loses its personal ending -s, as "it need " not be."

In O.E. to need meant only to compel, force; but from a primitive thurfan (Ger. dürfen) to need, was formed the following:—

Pres. Indic. Sing.

1. thearf.

I need Thou needest

.. Plur.

3. thearf 1, 2, 3. thurf-on He needs We need, &c.

In M.E. we find thar for thart.

"Have thou ynough, what thar the recche or care."

= If thou have enough, why needeth thee reck or care.

CHAUCER, C. T. 1. 5911

Auxiliary Verbs.

222. Auxiliary verbs supply the places of verbal suffixes to form voice, mood, and tense.

The passive voice is expressed by the passive participle, and the verb to be.

In O.E. weorthan and wesan were used with the passive participle to form the passive voice.

Should and would are often used as signs of the subjunctive mood.

The use of would, as an auxiliary of the past subjunctive, is as early as the thirteenth century.

^{&#}x27; Some explain need as subjunctive = would need; but cp. me thinc in M.E. for me-thinks.

Let is a sign of the imperative mood, as, let us go = go we. See § 180, p. 132. In M.E. let was used in the same way as do = cause, make.

The tense auxiliaries are (1) have, had; and is, was (with intransitive verbs) for the perfect tenses;

as, "he has asked," "he is come."

(2) Shall and will for the future; but other shades of a future tense may be expressed by various modes, as, "I am going to see him;" "I am about to see him;" "I am upon the point of seeing him," &c.

(3) Do and did are used for forming emphatic

tenses, as, "I do see," "I did see."

Do and did originally had a *causative* sense before another verb in the infinitive.

"Thou most do me it have."

= Thou must cause me to have it.

Gamelyn, 1. 159.

" And som-tyme doth Theseus hem to reste."

= And sometimes Theseus makes them to rest.

Knightes Tale.

In the fourteenth century did was not uncommon as a mere tense auxiliary.

"Summe gouleden and summe dude brenne."

=Some yelled and others did burn. - O.E. Misc. p. 224.

In M.E. gan, can, con (began) was used for did.

"His stede he gan bistride
And forth he gan ride."—Horn. p. 22.

" Hi gunnen ut ride,

And funden on a grene A geaunt."—Ib. p. 22.

"Gret ioi can his frendes mak[e]."

Cursor Mundi, C. l. 3016.

"Criste of hym his crowne con take."

Pol. Rel. and Love Poems, p. 97, L. 121.

CHAPTER XI.

Adverbs.

223. Adverbs are, for the most part, abbreviations of words or phrases, or cases of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns.

According to their origin or form, we may divide them into the following classes:—

224. I. Adverbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives.

Genitive.—Need-s = of necessity; M.E. nedes; E.E. nêde (instr.).

A-night-s, now-a-day-s, al-way-s, be-time-s, el-se (O.E. elles), eft-soon-s, un-a-ware-s, on-ce, twi-ce, thri-ce, whil-s-t, a-mid-s-t, a-mong-s-t, be-twi-x-t.

Twice = O.E. twi-wa, E.E. twi-e, M.E. twies; thrice = O.E. thri-wa, E.E. thrie, M.E. thries; wa = -war = time; once, O.E. æne, E.E. ene, M.E. an-es, on-es, an-s, on-s.

The -st in whilst, &c. represents an older -es(-s). Cp. M.E.

whil-es, amidd-es, among-es, &c.

Dative.—Whil-om (O.E. hwil-um), from while = time. Seld-om (O.E. seld-um) from O.E. seld = rare.

All adverbs ending in -meal once had the dative suffix -um. Cp. O.E. lim-mæl-um = limb-meal. The suffix -um formed distributives like Latin -im. Cp. M.E. table-mele = Latin tabillatim .- Palladius on Husbondrie, p. 66.

Little by little = M.E. lytlum and lytlum.

Accusative.—Alway (O.E. ealne-weg), otherwise. sometime, the while, now-a-day, backward, &c.

Prepositional Forms.—The chief prepositions used to form adverbial expressions are, a, (an), on, in, at, of, be, (by), to.

An = in, on: anon = in one second. In M.E.

we find on-an = anon.

A = in, on: a-bed, a-day, a-sleep, a-loft, &c.; a-broad, a-cold, a-good, a-twain, &c.

On, in: on sleep, on high, in-deed, in vain, in

short, in two, &c.

At: at jar, at odds, at large, at night, at length, at best, at first, &c.

Of (for a): of kin, of late, of old, of new;

Of (for older genitives), of a truth, of right.

Be, by: be-times, be-cause, by turns, by degrees, by hundreds.

To: to-day, to-night, to-gether.

Per: per-chance, per-haps.

An (=in, on) occurs in E.E. and M.E. before words beginning with a vowel or h; as, an eve, in the evening; an honde, in hand,

A is used before words beginning with a consonant.

"Ich am nu elder than ich was a wintre and a lore." - O. E. Hom. ii. 220.

This a was a separate word as late as the seventeenth century. It is very common before verbal nouns. Cp. a-fishing, a-hunting, a-weeping.

As on is only another form of an, it has replaced an before a

vowel.

"Set our teeth an edge [= on edge]."

The Four Book of Princes, p. 116.

A and on, sometimes occur side by side: a-board and on board, a-ground and on ground.

An takes the place of in, in the phrase "ever and anon;" where an-on = M.E. in oon, in one state.

" Ever in oon."-CHAUCER, Astrolabe, p. 15.

"Ever and anon it (earth) must turn about."

HOLLAND'S Pliny, p. 1.

Sometimes an end = in oon = continually.

As of takes the place of a in akin, &c. so a sometimes takes the place of of.

"I have heard a the horses walking a' (on) the top of Paules."

—DEKKER, Satiromastix, C. 2. "What manner a man."—BECON.

Cp. "a the appel tre" = o that appel tre = of the apple tree.—C. Mundi, p. 86.

This a for o or of explains; man-a-war, justice-a-peace (Dekker); two-a-clock = two o' clock = two of the clock; iack-an-apes.

In M.E. we find of long, of new, of-fer (afar), and even of goo

= ago (cp. O.E. of-gan, to go off).

Be sometimes preceded the dative adverb in O.E. as be an-fealdum = by one fold = singly, from which we have formed our expressions, by hundreds and by fifties = O.E. be hundredum and be fiftegum. In E.E. the dative ending dropped, and we have bi sixe, bi seove, = by sixes, by sevens, &c. Cp. by piecemeal for piecemeal, (Beaumont and Fletcher).

At especially before superlatives is a contraction of at the, M.E. atte. In O.E. this the was in the dative case. At random

= Fr. à randon.

225. Many adjectives are used as adverbs, especially those with irregular comparisons: far, forth, ful, ill, late, little, much, nigh, near, well.

Many monosyllabic adjectives are used as adverbs, as, to work hard; to talk fast; to speak loud; to aim high.

In the earlier stages of the language, the adverbial form was marked by a final -e, as, hard (adi.), hard-e (adv.), &c. When this -e became silent, then the adjectival and adverbial form became identical.

We can thus easily understand the use of godly as adjective and adverb; (cp. "a godly life," and "to live godly,") In O.E. the distinction was plainly marked, e.g., god-lic (adj.), god-lic-e (adv.).

The adverbial -e was probably a dative suffix. In M.E. we find instances of the use of this -e: they pleye hastiliche and swiftliche (Trevisa).

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the suffix -ly was often dropped: as,

" Foolish bold."

" Grievous sick."

BECON.

SHAKESPEARE.

Cp. "Wondrous wise." The history of wondrous (wonderfully) is a curious one. In O.E. the adverb was wundr-um, which in M.E. became wunder, wonder, T.E. wonders. In E.E. we find wunderliche, in M.E. wonderli; and in T.E. wondersly. In Ford's works we find "woundy bad," i.e. wonderfully or very bad.

226. II. Pronominal Adverbs.

Many adverbs are derived from the pronominal stems, the, he, who.

PRONOMINAL STEMS.	PLACE WHERE.	MOTION TO.	MOTION FROM.	TIME WHEN.	MANNER.	CAUSE.
who	where	whither	whence	when	how	why
the	there	thither	thence	then	thus	the
he	here	hither	hence	12	_	-

The suffixes -re and -ther in the-re, he-re, whe-re, thi-ther, &c., were originally locative.

The -n in the n, whe n, &c., is an accusative suffix.

See pronouns, § 131, p. 107; § 146, p. 119.

The -ce (M.E. -es), in then-ce, &c., represents an older -an, cp. O.E. than-an (thence); heon-an (hence); hwan-an (whence).

The O.E. -an denotes motion from: east-an = from the east; so thence = than-an = from that (place).

The, before comparatives, as, the more (= O.E. thi mare, Lat. eo magis) is the instrumental case of the definite article, the.

Lest has lost the instrumental the. In O.E. we find thŷ læs the, E.E. les the, M.E. leste = lest.

Thus is the instrumental case of this.

How (O.E. hu, E.E. hwu), and why (O.E. hwî), are the inst. cases of who. Cp. for-why = for which (reason), wherefore; for-thy = for that (reason), therefore.

Yea, ye-s, ye-t, are from a relative stem ya, which also had a demonstrative force, as in yon, yond, yonder.

That and so are often used as affirmative adverbs.

In nay, no, not, now, we have a demonstrative stem, na.

In O.E. ne = not.

"Eart thû of thyses leorning-cnihtum? nic ne eom ic."

=Art thou of this man's disciples? not I, I am not.

John xviii. 17.

Negatives are often repeated for emphasis:-

" Ne nân ne dorste nân thing âcsian."

= No one durst ask him anything.

Matt. xxii. 46.

" Ne com ic na Crist."- John i. 18.

"But he ne lefte nought for rayn ne thonder."

CHAUCER, Prol. 1. 492.

O.E. ne was also a conjunction = nor. See Spenser, Facrie Oucene, I. i. 28.

Not (= O.E. nôht, M.E. noght, nat) = no whit, (nothing), has replaced the old na, ne. It has already been shown to be an indefinite pronoun. See aught, § 164, p. 125.

"Ne wen thu nawiht leoue feder that tu affeare me swa = ne lef thu nawt leoue feader that tu offeare me swa. Ween thou not dear father that thou may frighten me so."- Juliana, pp. 12, 13.

"Ac hit ne helpeth heom nowiht." -O.E. Misc. p. 152.

Aught, naught, nothing, something, somewhat, muchwhat, anywhit, &c. may be used as adverbs.

So (= O.E. swâ) was used as a relative pronoun in E.E.: from it we derive also (O.E. ealswa). which, by loss of 1, has dwindled down to as = M.E. ase = E.E. alse = O.E. eal-swa.

Ay, sometimes used for yes, is the same as the adverb aye = ever.

For ever or ave we find in O.E. a; E.E. o, oo, ay, ey, Cp. O.E. A-hwar, ag-hwar = any-where; E.E. o-whar, eihwer.

What (O.E. hwat) = why (Lat. quid) is an adverb :-

> ' What do you prate of service?" SHAKESPEARE, Cor. iii. 3.

227. III. Adverbs formed from Prepositions.

Aft, in "fore and aft;" O.E. &f-t-an, after. Af is another form of (= from). Cp. af-ter, af-terwards.

Be, by, by and by, hard-by, be-sides, be-hind, b-ut be-neath, &c.

For, for-th, for-thwith, a-fore, forward (= M.E. forth-ward).

Fro = from; "to and fro."

In, with-in, E.E. in-with; M.E. bin = O.E. binnan = within.

Neath, be-neath, under-neath.

Cp. ne-ther; O.E. ni-ther, and Sansk. ni = down.

On, on-ward, on-wards.

Of, off; a-down (O.E. of $d\hat{u}n = from the hill$). See aft.

To, too; to ward, &c.

Through, thorough, thoroughly, throughly.

Up, up-per, up-wards, upp-er-most.

Out, with-out, a-b-out, b-ut. (See Prepositions. § 230, p. 195. § 231, p. 196.)

228. IV. Compound Adverbs.

Many are given under the head of prepositional forms. (See § 224, p. 188.)

There, here, and where, are combined with (1) prepositions, (2) adverbs, (3) indefinite pronouns to form compound adverbs:—there-of, there-to, there-

from, there-by, &c.; where-so-ever, where-ever, &c.; else-where, some-where, no-where,

Everywhere = ever-y-where, E.E. ever ihwar (Ancren Riwle, p. 200); y-where = E.E. i-hwar, i-hwer = O.E. ge-hwær. There was a M.E. eywhere, aywhere (which was also combined with ever) = O.E. ag-hwar, everywhere. Cp. O.E. ahwar, M.E. awher, owher, owwhar = anywhere.

In O.E. we have very few compounds of there, here, and where, with prepositions; but they are numerous in E.E.

The pronominal adverbs and their compounds, as where,

where-of, where-to, have the force of relative pronouns.

The compounds of there, here, where, with prepositions are almost all archaic. We replace there-of, there-to, &c. by of that, of it, to that, to it, &c.; where-of, &c. by of which, &c. and here in. &c. by in this. &c.

These compounds, being followed by the preposition, resemble the construction of that, and the O.E. indeclinable relative the.

> "Thæt bed the se lama on læg." = The bed that the lame man lay on.

= The bed whereon [= on which] the lame man lay.

Mark ii. 4.

of the silver of the training of The file of the second

"The ston that he leonede to."

= The stone whereto he leant.

Vernon MS.

Some elliptical expressions containing a verb are used as adverbs, as may-be, may-hap, how-be-it, as it were, to be sure, to wit.

the country me of the han as a country

CHAPTER XII.

Prepositions.

229. Prepositions are so named, because they were originally prefixed to the verb to modify its meaning. Many prepositions still preserve their adverbial meaning (cp. for-swear, be-times, &c.). Some relations denoted by prepositions may be expressed by caseendings. Prepositions are either simple or compound.

230. I. Simple Prepositions.

At (O.E. at; Lat. ad).

By (O.E. be, bi). The original meaning is about, concerning. Another form of it is O.E. umbe; M.E. umb, um; cp. Gr. ἀμφί; Lat. amb, am.

For (O.E. for, Lat. pro).

Fro-m (O.E., fram).

Fro (E.E. fra).

The m in from is a superlative suffix. The roots for and fro are connected with each other, and with far and fore. Cp. Lat. pro, per, præ.

In, on (O.E. in, on, an; Gr. èv, Lat. in). Of, off (O.E. of = from; Lat. ab; Gr. à π ô). Out (O.E. ût; cp. utter, utmost).

To (O.E. tô). It has often the sense of "for."

Up (O.E. up; Lat. s-ub).

With (O.E. with, wither, from, against). We have preserved the original force of with in with-stand &c. The sense of the Lat. cum was usually expressed in O.E. by mid: Goth. mith, Gr. μέτα.

231. II. Compound Prepositions.

(I) COMPARATIVES.

Af-ter (O.E. ef-ter), is a comparative of the root af = of = from. The suffix -ter is the same as -ther in whe-ther, &c.

Ov-er (O.E. of-er; Goth. uf-ar; Lat. s-uper; Gr. $i\pi\epsilon\rho$), is a comparative of the root of or uf. We have the same root in O.E. ufe-weard; E.E. uveweard = upward, a-b-ove.

Un-der (O.E. under; Lat. inter) contains the root in and the comparative suffix -der = -ther.

In E.E. under = between; under that = between that; meanwhile.

Through (O.E. thur-h; Gr. dur-ch), contains the same root as the Lat. tra-ns, from the root thar or tar, to go beyond, to cross.

(2) PREPOSITIONS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

B-ut (O.E. b-ut-an, = be-ut-an, bi-ui-an) = be (by) + ut (out).

A-b-out (O.E. \hat{a} -b-utan = \hat{a} -be-utan) = a (on) + be (by) + out.

A-b-ove (O.E. b-uf-an = be-uf-an) = a (on) + be

(by) + ove (up).

Unto (M.E. until), is a compound of unt and to. The same root exists in Goth. und; O.E. ôth = onth = unto.

In-to, up-on, be-fore, with-in, through-out, be-neath, under-neath, &c.

(3) PREPOSITIONS FORMED FROM NOUNS.

A-gain, a-gain-s-t (O.E. on-gean, tô-gegnes).

A-mong (O.E. ge-mong, on-ge-mong; E.E. on-mang, bi-mong), a = on; mong = ming-ling, mixing. Cp. E.E. monglen, to mix; monglung = mingling.

Other prepositions of this sort are in-stead of = in the place of, (stead = place) = in lieu of; in behalf of, by dint of, by way of, for the sake of; a-breast of, a-board, a-head of, a-cross, be-side; in spite of = in despite of. Sometimes we find my despite = in despite of me. Cp. the use of maugre (Fr. malgré) in M.E. maugre min, in spite of me; maugre thaires = in spite of them.

(4) ADJECTIVE PREPOSITIONS.

E-re (O.E. æ-r; M.E. er, ar, or), before. Sec § 116. p. 95.

Or, the M.E. form or = ar = ere occurs in the authorised version of the Bible. See Ps. xc. 2; Prov. viii. 23.

Or ere (= or er = er er), is a mere reduplication, like an if. See King John, iv. 3; Tempest, i. 2;

Hamlet, i. 2. It seems to have acquired the sense of ere ever. See Wright's Bible Word Book, p. 353.

Till (O.E. til good; O.N. til to). In M.E. we find till used as a sign of the infinitive; it formed numerous compounds as intil = into, &c.

Along (O.E. and-lang; E.E. an-lang; M.E. ende-

long, endelonges).

We sometimes find alongst (= alonges).

" Alongst the lee shore."

WEBSTER. Northward Ho.

"To lie along," = to lie at full length.

There is another along (O.E. ge-lang), in the phrase "along of," "long of," = on account of.

> " On hire is al mi lif ilong." O.E. Misc. p. 158.

"But if it is along on me."

GOWER, Spec. E. Eng. xx. 55.

" And that is long of contrarie causes."

HOLLAND, Pliny, p. 25.

" All long of this vile traitor Somerset."

I Hen. VI. iv. 3.

" And this is long of her."

FORD.

A-mid, a-midst (O.E. on-midd-um; M.E. a-middes, a-midde, in-middes), contains the preposition a (on) and the adjective mid in middle, mid-most, &c.

Other prepositions of this kind are, a-round, a-slant, &c.; an-ent, respecting = O.E. on-efn, on-emn, near, toward = E.E. on-efen-t = M.E. anentes, anence; a-thwart = across; (O.E. on thweorh. Cp. thweorh = perverse; Icel. thvert, the acc. neut. of thverr, across, transverse); be-low, be-truix-t (O.E. be-tweex) from two ; be-tween (O.E. be-tween-um) from twain.

Since (O.E. sith-than; E.E. sith-then, sith-the M.E. sithenes, sith, sin, sins), from sith = late; O.E. sither later; cp. since when.

O.E. sith-than = later than, after that.

(5) VERBAL PREPOSITIONS.

These are new forms that have arisen out of the participial (dative) construction: owing to, notwith-standing, out-taken, (replaced by except).

We have numerous participial forms of Romanic origin, as, according to, concerning, during, except, re-

specting, saving, touching.

Save = M.E. sauf, except. See Chaucer, Knightes

Tale, l. 2182.

Sans (Fr.) = sine (Lat.) has gone out of use. It was occasionally employed by Shakespeare.

CHAPTER XIII.

Conjunctions.

- 232. Prepositions join words, one of which is subordinate to the other. Conjunctions join sentences, and co-ordinate terms. Conjunctions are of comparatively late growth, and have sprung from other parts of speech, especially from pronouns, adverbs, and prepositions.
- (1) Pronominal.—Yet (O.E. gy-t), if (O.E. gi-f, M.E. yi-f, ef, if), yea (O.E. gea), an-d.

With and is connected the archaic conjunction an

= if.

And is very often written for an by older writers.

"And you love me, let's do't; I am dog at a catch."

Twelfth Night, ii. 3.

"I pray thee, Launce, and if thou seest my boy, Bid him make haste."

Two Gentlemen of Verona, iii. 1.

We occasionally find but and if = but if; M.E. but-if = unless.

We have lost the O.E. ge—ge, both—and; ac, but; ne—ne, neither—nor; swa—swa, as well—as; oththe—oththe, either—or; sam—sam; the—the, whether—or; the or thy, and for-thy; for-tham(than)-the, be-tham-the = for that that, by that that, because; nu—nu = now—now.

For-why is scarce now. It occurs in the Psalms

(Prayer Book).

Either—or; neither—nor; or—or, nor—nor, have the same origin as the indefinite pronouns, either and neither. See § 168, p. 127.

Or is a corruption of either (O.E. hwher, hther) and nor of neither (O.E. nather). In M.E. we find other—other = either—or; nother—nother = neither—nor.

"Put not thy fyngerys in thy dysche,
Nothyr in flesche nothir in fysche."

Babees Book, p. 18.

" As trewe as steel either stoon."

Ib. p. 40.

See Luke vi. 42.

El-se, the genitive of el (= other), is often supplied by otherwise.

So gives rise to also, as, and whereas; the is the root of though, (O.E. theâ-h) although, then, than, that, &c.

The stem of who occurs in what—and (M.E. what—what = both ... and), whether, whence, &c.

(2) Adverbial (from nouns).—Likewise, (= in likewise), sometimes, at times, whilst, otherwhiles, besides, be-cause, on the contrary, in order that, &c.

To the end that (Ex. viii, 22) = O.E. tô tham that = to that that.

In O.E. hwll-um—hwll-um; hwlle—hwlle = sometimes—sometimes.

"One while (the moon) bended pointwise into tips of horns; another whiles divided just in the half, and anon again in a compasse round, spotted sometime and darke, and soon after on a sudden exceeding bright; one while big and full, and another while, all at once, nothing to be seene."—HOLLAND, Pliny, p. 6.

(3) Adverbial (from adjectives).—Both—and, even, only, now—anon, furthermore, for as much as, evermore, lastly, firstly, finally, &c. Lest = O.E. thŷ læs the, læs the; M.E. leste; natheles = O.E. nâ thy læs = nevertheless; unless = E.E. onlesse.

Not only—but also = O.E., nalæs thæt ån thæt—ac eåc swå; as soon as = sôna swå—swå. In M.E. we find na the mo = never the more.

(4) Prepositional, many of which have come in along with the demonstrative that.—Ere, after, before, but, for, since, in that, with that, till (= to), until (= unto).

In O.E. 6th that = until; E.E. a that; M.E. for-to, for-te, fort (that), to that = until. Sometimes the while til, and while itself, do duty for until.

For to has sometimes the sense of in order to (see Gen. xxxi.

18; Ex. xvi. 27).

(5) Verbal.—Say, suppose, to talk of, considering, provided, were it not, how he it, &c.

CHAPTER XIV.

Interjections.

233. Interjections have no grammatical relation to other words in a sentence and are not strictly speaking 'parts of speech.' They are either mere exclamations or cries, as, O! ah! eigh! fy! or else elliptical expressions, as good bye = god b' wr' ye = God be with you.

Zounds = God's wounds; marry = the Virgin

Mary; grammercy = great thanks.

Alas, alack, Fr. hêlas, from las (sad), Lat. lassus. 234. Some words (adverbs, verbs), are used as interjections: how, well, out, hence, begone, look, behold. Cp. hail! all hail = O.E. wes thu hâl = hale be thou; O.E. wes hâl has become wassail. See The Blickling Homilies, ed. Morris, pp. 3, 5.

A few primitive interjections have come down to us from the oldest English; ha, eh (O. E. ea), lo, la, (O.E. lâ), heigh (hig), wo! (O.E. wâ), well-a-way, well-a-day (O.E. wâ-lâ-wâ = woe-lo-woe, what (O.E. hwæt).

CHAPTER XV.

Derivation and Word formation.

235. The primary elements and significant parts of words are called roots, as tal in talk and tell; bar, in bear, bairn, birth, &c.

The root is modified (1) by endings called suffixes which form derivatives, as, rich-ly, nest-ling; (2) by particles, placed before the root, called prefixes, which form compounds, as, for-bid, un-true.

Two words may be placed together to form com-

pound words, as, blackbird.

SUFFIXES OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN.

FROM DEMONSTRATIVE ROOTS.

236. I. Noun Suffixes.

Some suffixes have sprung from old demonstrative or pronominal roots; others are merely altered forms of nouns and adjectives. The origin of the former is very obscure; that of the latter tolerably certain. Cp. beauti-ful, love-ly, glad-some, &c. See Suffixes of Predicative origin, § 238, p. 209. Many words have an old vowel suffix, as, -ale = O.E. cal-u; -hue = O.E. heo-w.

It must be borne in mind-

(1) That many prefixes and suffixes have no longer a living power, that is, are not now used to form new derivatives; as the prefix for in for-swear, and the suffix -m in gleam, &c.

(2) That many derivatives were formed from certain ancient roots or stems in the oldest period of our language; as flight

from fledgan, not from the modern fly.

-d gives a kind of passive signification to words formed from verbal roots: dee-d from do = that which is done. Cp. floo-d from flow; glee-d (a live coal) from glow; see-d from sow.

-er (O.E. -ere), denoting the agent or doer: bak-

er, speak-er, mill-er.

Sometimes we find -ar, -or for -er; begg-ar, schol-ar, sail-or. Under N.Fr. influence i or y has crept in before -er; as, law-y-er, glaz-i-er, cloth-i-er.

-man is added to -er in fish-er-man.

-t has crept into bragg-ar-l, and -d into dast-ar-d, loll-ar-d (M.E. lollere).

-est; earn-est, harv-est.

-ing, the ending of verbal nouns, O.E. -ung; as,

learn-ing, writ-ing, &c.

-ing (O.E. -ing) forming diminutives: as, farth-ing (from fourth), tith-ing (from tithe = tenth), rid-ing (from thrid = third).

This suffix occurs in a few nouns without adding a diminutival force to them:—kin-g (O.E. cyn-ing):—shill-ing, penn-y(O.E. pen-ing); whit-ing, sweet-ing. This suffix had originally a possessive force, hence it formed patronymics; as, O.E. Scilf-ing, the son of Scilf; Æthelwulf-ing, the son of Æthelwulf.

-l-ing, made up of -l and -ing, forms diminutives: dar-ling (from dear), gos-ling, strip-ling, under-ling.

The addition of the suffix -ling has caused dear, goose, and stripe, to shorten their original long vowels. Cp. nation and national, "to break a fast," and "to breakfast."

-k: haw-k, mil-k, yol-k.

-kin (= -k + -in) forms diminutives: as, lamb-kin, lad-kin, fir-kin (from four).

It forms patronymics in Daw-kin (from David), Per-kins (from Peter).

-le, denoting agent or instrument: as, bead-le, (from O.E. beodan, to pray); bund-le (from bind); steep-le (from steep); sett-le (from seat); thimb-le (from thumb).

We find this 1 in angle, apple, bramble, fiddle, saddle, shambles, fowl, hail, heel, nail, sail, stile, (from sty, to go up).

- -1, -le (O.E. -els, Ger. -el): as, buri-al, brid-le, gird-le, ridd-le (from O.E. ræd-en, to read, interpret, advise), skitt-les (from O.E. sceôt-an, to shoot), shewel (a scarecrow).
- -m (O.E. -ma, -m. Cp. Lat. no-men): bar-m (from bear), bloo-m (from blow), doo-m (from do): glea-m (from glow), qual-m (from quell), sea-m (from sew), strea-m (from strew, to scatter, spread), tea-m (from tow, tug), stea-m (from stew).

It takes the form of -om in bloss-om, bos-om, fath-om.

-n (of the same origin as the -n in passive participles): bair-n (from bear), beac-on (from beak), burd-en (from bear), heav-en (from heave), maid-en, mai-n (from mag, to be great), wagg-on, wai-n (from wag).

In chick-en (from cock), the suffix has a diminutival force; kitt-en (from cat) = M.E. kit-oun. We also find kit-l-ing = kitten.

-en in vix-en (from fox) was once a common sign of the feminine.

-nd (an old present participial ending): err-and, fi-end (from O.E. fi-an, to hate), freo-nd (from freo-n, to love), wi-nd (from wa, to blow).

-ness (O.E. -nis, -nes), forming abstract nouns from nouns and adjectives; as, wit-ness, wilder-ness;

dark-ness, good-ness, &c.

-ock (O.E. -uca), forming diminutives and patronymics: as, bull-ock, hill-ock; pill-ock (a little pill), Poll-ock (from Paul), Wil-cox, Wil-c-ock (from Will).

In the Scotch dialects we find ladd-ock, wif-ock. This -ock becomes -ick, or -ie (-y); as, lass-ick, lass-ic. Cp. mamm-y, dadd-y.

-r (instrumental): fing-er (from fang, to take) lai-r (from lie), stai-r (from sty, to climb), timb-er (from timb, to build), wat-er (from wet), wint-er (from wind).

-ster (O.E. estre), originally a sign of the feminine gender: as, spin-ster.

It merely marks the agent in song-ster, huck-ster, malt-ster, young-ster.

Upholsterer or upholster, is a corruption of upholder.

-s: blis-s (from blithe), eave-s. It also appears in

adze, axe.

-th, -t (of the same origin as the d in seed, &c.). It is used, for the most part, to form abstract nouns from verbs and adjectives: as, dear-th (from dear), wid-th (from wide), heal-th (from hale), leng-th (from long), slo-th (from slow), dea-th (from die), bir-th (from bear), ear-th (from ear, to plough).

Drough-t (from dry, O.E. drig): heigh-t (from high),

len-ten (from long).

Drif-t (from drive): fligh-t (from fly, O.E. fleogan), gif-t, (from give), migh-t (from may, O.E. mæg), slaugh-t-er (from slay, O.E. sleohan), sigh-t (from see, O.E. seon, pret seah), draugh-t from draw or drag, O.E. dragan), fros-t, beques-t.

The suffix t for th is due to the sharp sounds f, gh (originally h), s. In O.E. th was always sounded flat, as in thine.

-ther, -ter, marking the agent: bro-ther, fa-ther,

mo-ther, daugh-ter, sis-ter, fos-ter (from food).

-ther, -ter, -der, marking the instrument: bladder, (from blow), fea-ther (from root fat, to fly), wea-ther (from wa, to blow), fo-dder (from fa, to feed), la-dder (from root hli, to climb), mur-der (from mar, to kill). Ru-dder (from row), laugh-ter.

-y (O.E. -ig, -h): bod-y, hon-ey. It has become

-ow in holl-ow, sall-ow, marr-ow, &c.

-ow also arises out of (1) O.E. -u:—mall-ow, mead-ow, shad-ow. (2) O.E. ewe:—swallow.

237. II. Adjective Suffixes.

-d (like the d in dee-d, &c.): bol-d, col-d, lou-d,

love-d, feathere-d, foote-d, &c. See p. 205.

-ish (O.E. -isc) forms patronymics, as, Eng-lish, Wel-sh, Ir-ish. It signifies some-what, rather, in green-ish, whit-ish, &c.; it marks contempt and depreciation, in book-ish, outland-ish, hogg-ish.

-le, -l (O.E. -el, -ol): britt-le (from O.E. bryttan, to break), id-le, litt-le (O.E. lyt, few), fick-le, gripp-le (grasping, greedy), new-fang-le-d (= taken up with

new things, (from O.E. fangan, to take), tick-le (unsteady), forget-ful = M.E. for-get-el (O.E. for-git-ol).

-en, made of. It originally signified of or belonging to: as, flax-en, gold-en, wood-en, &c.

There was once a very large number of adjectives in -en; as, ashen, oaken, glassen, &c. The extensive use that could be once made of this suffix may be seen from the following passage:—

"God him selue thaim led thair way,
To wise and kepe bath night and day,

With clouden piler on day liht,

With firen piler apon the night."—Cursor Mundi, G. ll. Clouden piler = pillar of cloud.

[6195-6. Firen piler = pillar of fire.

-en (participial): bound-en, molt-en, &c.

-r, -er (O.E. -or, -er, -r): bitt-er from bite, slipper-y; cp. M.E. slid-er (slippery), lith-er (bad), waker (watchful), flicker = flik-er (= fickle, flickering).

-er and -n are combined in east-er-n, north-er-n,

south-er-n, west-er-n.

-t: brigh-t, lef-t, ligh-t, righ-t, swif-t. See-t, p. 207. th: fif-th, six-th, seven-th.

-y (O.E. -ig): an-y, blood-y, clay-ey, craft-y, dirt-y, &c., sill-y (O.E. sæl-ig).

-ow arises out of an older -u:—call-ow, fall-ow, narr-ow, yell-ow.

238. II. Suffixes from Predicative Roots.

(1) Nouns.

-craft (O.E. craft): priest-craft, witch-craft, wood-craft.

-kind (O.E. -cyn) = kin: man-kin-d, woman-kin-d.

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In E.E. and M.E. we find fowl-kin, worm-kin, &c. In M.E. kin, instead of being used after the noun, was put between the numeral and noun; hence it is mostly found in the genitive case.

" Monies cunnes ufel." = Evil of many a kind.

" For nones kunnes mede."

= For meed of no kind.

" Alles kinnes bokes."

= Books of every kind.

In M.E. we find alskyns, noskyns, no skynnes, nakin, whatkin. These (Northern) forms are perhaps due to Scandinavian influence. Cp. Dan. alskins, "of every sort."

The phrase no kin became also no kind of, and no manner, no manner of, &c. Cp. the following from the Cursor Mundi:-

- "Of nankines worm bat euer is made."-G. l. 1961.
- "O nakin worm þat es made."-G. l. 1961.
- "Of no maner worm bat is made."-T. l. 1961.

-dom = doom (O.E. dôm, Ger. thum): thral-dom, wis-dom, cristen-dom, hali-dom (and halidame = O.E. hâlig-dom; E.E. halidom, sanctuary, relic); kingdom (from O.E. cyne, royal).

In E.E. kine is a very common prefix, kine-zerde = royal-rod, sceptre, kine-helm = crown, kine-riche = realm, kine-setle = royal settle, throne.

-fare (O.E. faru, way; faran, to go), way, course · thorough-fare, wel-fare, chaf-fer (= chap-fare from cheap).

-head, -hood (O.E. had, state, rank, person; M.E.

-hed, -hod; Ger. -heit).

God-head, man-hood (M.E. man-hede, man-hode); live-li-hood once signified liveliness; but it now represents the O.E. lif-lade; E.E. lif-lode; M.E. live-lode (life-leading), sustenance.

-herd (O.E. hyrde, pastor, keeper, herdsman):

shep-herd, swine-herd. Cp. goose-herd (Holins-hed), hog-herd (Harrison).

-lock, -ledge (O.E. lâc, gift, sport), wed-lock, know-ledge (M. E. know-leche, know-lache, know-

lage).

O.E. bryd-lac = marriage, reaf-lac, bereaving, spoil. The Icelandic -leikr (= O.E. -lac) is very common under the forms -leic or -laik in E.E., and M.E.; god-leic = goodness, hende-leik, hende-laik = politeness, from hende (= O.E. gehende, at hand, ready, polite).

-man often does duty for the O.E. -ere. Cp. ship-man, chap-man, dust-man, bell-man, work-man (O.E. wyrht-a).

M.E. fishere = fish-er-man. Cp. speaker and spoke-s-man (= M.E. speke-man). The s is an intruder in craft-s-man, hunt-s-man, herd-s-man. Wife sometimes takes the place of -ster. Cp. brew-wif (in Piers Plowman) for brewestere; fish-wife = fish-woman; mid-wife; huzzy = house-wife; goody = goodwife.

-lock, -lick (O.E. -leac, -lic, plant): gar-lick (spear plant): hem-lock, bar-ley (O.E. ber-lic, from bere barley).

-red (O.E. rêden = mode, fashion, condition; Ger. -rath): hat-red, kin-d-red.

-rick (O.E. rîce, power, dominion): bishop-rick. Cp. M.E. hevene-riche, king-riche (= E.E. kine-riche), realm.

-ship, -skip, -scape (O.E. scipe, Icel. -skapr = form, shape): friend-ship, lord-ship, wor-ship (= worth-ship); land-scape (land-skip) is a modern formation.

Fairfax, in his Bulk and Selvage of the World, coins steamscope for atmosphere.

-stead (O.E. stede, place, stead; from stand), bedstead; sun-stead = sol-stice.

-tree (O.E. treow, tree, wood), axle-tree; M.E. dore-tre (door-post), rode-tre (rood-tree, cross).

-wright (O.E. wyrhta, E.E. wrihte, a workman; from work cp. wrought), ship-wright, wheel-wright.

In E.E. we find psalm-wurhte, psalm-wrihte = psalm-wright, or the O.E. psalm-scop = psalm-shaper, psalmist. Becon uses . øsalm-o-graph for psalmist!

E.E. bred-wrigte = bread-wright = baker.

-ward (O.E. weard, warder, keeper), ape-ward, bear-ward, hav-ward.

(2) ADJECTIVES.

-fast (O.E. -fast, firm, fast): sted-fast, shamefaced (= shame-fast, modest): root-fast.

-fold (O.E. -feald): two-fold, mani-fold.

-ful (O.E. -ful): aw-ful, bale-ful, hate-ful, needful.

-less (O.E. -leas = loose): fear-less, godless.

-ly, -like (O.E. -lic; lic, Ger. leich, body): god-ly, like-ly, man-ly, dove-like, war-like. See § 225, p. 190.

"Tis as manlike to bear extremities as godlike to forgive." FORD.

-right (O.E. -riht): up-right, down-right.

In M.E. upright = supine; downright = perpendicular.

-some (O.E. -sum, Ger. -sam) is another form of same: dark-some, hard-some, irk-some: buxom

= bugh-som = bending-some, pliant, obedient, from bow (O.E. bugan to bend): lissom = lithe-some.

-teen, ty = ten. See numerals § 118, p. 98.

-ward (O.E. -weard, becoming, leading to. Cp. O.E. weorth-an, to become, Lat. versus, from vertere, to turn): back-ward, for-ward, fro-ward, to-ward, unto-ward.

-wise (O.E. wîs, way, mode): right-eous (O.E. riht-wîs = right-wise. Cp. M.E. tale-wise = tell-tale, tale-bearing.

"For Godd es ever on right-wis side,
Werrand [warring] again wrang-wis pride."

C. Mundi, G. ll. 7547, 7548.

-worth (O.E. -weorth, E.E. -wurthe): stal-worth, dear-worth (precious).

In E.E. we find lune-wurthe (love-worthy), kine-wurthe (royal).

239. IV. Adverbial Suffixes.

The demonstrative suffixes -s, -m, -nce, have already been treated of under adverbs, §§ 224, 226, pp. 187, 188, 191.

The following are of predicative origin:-

-ly (O.E. -lîce): bad-ly, on-ly, lone-ly (= al-one-ly), utter-ly, willing-ly. See -ly, p. 212.

-ling, -long (O.E. -lunga, -linga): head-long, flat-

ling, dark-ling, side-ling, side-long.

In M.E. we find the genitive form -lynges (linges) in grof-lynges = groveling (prone), hedlinges = headlong.

"I'll run headlongs by and by."

WEBSTER, Northward Ho.

"Hurlet (hurl'd) hym doun hedlynges."

The Gest Hystoriale, 1. 7485.

Nose-linges, naselynge, noslyngys (supine, with the nose upward), handlinges (hard to hand).

-meal (O.E. -mælum, from mæl, division, meal): limb-meal, piece-meal, flock-meal.

-ward, -wards: hither-ward, down-wards, up-

wards. See p. 213.

-wise (see p. 213): other-wise, no-wise, like-wise.

In M.E. we find "in other wise," "in no wise," "in like wise," "in the same wise," "in what wise."

-way, -ways: al-way, al-ways, straight-way, straight-ways.

-Gate or gates = gait, way, is a suffix in M.E. Thus -gate, other -gates, so-gate.

240. V. Verbal Suffixes.

-k (frequentative or intensitive): har-k (from hear), tal-k (from tell), stal-k (from steal).

-1, -le (frequentative): dibb-le (from dip), dribb-le (from drip), dazz-le (from daze), grapp-le (from grasp), dwind-le (from dwine), knee-l, spark-le, start-le.

-n (causative): hast-en, strength-en, fatt-en, shorten, &c.

This suffix had once a reflexive or passive signification. Cp. learn from M.E. leren.

-r (frequentative or intensitive): ling-er, (O.E. leng-an, to delay), flitt-er, glitt-er, glimm-er, welt-er.

Stagger = M.E. stakeren. For change of consonant before the suffix, cp. dribb-le from drip, &c.

s: ble-ss (O.E. blêt-s-i-an, from blot, sacrifice), clean-se, tru-s-t, cla-s-p (from clap), gra-s-p, (from grap), li-s-p (from lip).

Rinse = Fr. rincer (= rins-cr, from a root found in Goth. hrain-jan, to cleanse; hrains, pure, clean. Ger. rein, pure.)

241. COMPOSITION.

Two or more words joined together to make a single term, expressing a new notion, are called Compounds: as, black-bird, rail-road, rain-bow, &c.

The accent distinguishes a compound word from the mere collocation of two terms, as *blackbird* and *black bird*. The hyphen is used to denote a compound, as, *passer-by*, *man-of-war*, *coast-line*, &c.

Notice the shortening of the long vowel in compounds, as, breakfast, shepherd; vineyard (= M.E. wyn-yard).

Compound words form nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

I. Noun-Compounds.

I. Noun and noun :-

Noontide, churchyard, oaktree, doomsday, kinsman, herdsman, man-killer, &c.

There are many similar old compounds whose elements are so fused together that we do not recognize them at first sight.

Bridal = bride-ale

Bandog = band-dog, Holinshed has band-dog or tie-dog.

Gospel = god-spell = good-word.

Nostril = nose-thrill = nose-hole (O.E. thyrel = hole).

Orchard = wort- (herb) yard (garden); O.E. ort-geard.

Nightingale = night-singer (O.E. nihtë-gale).

Hand-y-work = O.E. hand-geweorc, hand work.

Cp. everywhere = E.E. ever-ihwer = O.E. afre + gehwar.

2. Substantive and adjective :-

Alderman, freeman, blackbird, midnight, upperhand,

For a longer list, see "Historical Outlines," p. 222.

(M.E. over-hand), fore-thought; neighbour = O.E. neâh-bur = nigh dweller; twilight, fortnight, &c.

3. Substantive and pronoun:

Self-will, self-esteem, self-sacrifice.

(4) Substantive and verb:-

Bakehouse, pickpocket, telltale, spendthrift, godsend windfall.

II. Adjective-Compounds.

1. Substantive and Adjective:-

Blood-red, snow-white, sea-sick, heart-sick, fire-proof, praise-worthy.

2. Adjective and substantive:-

Bare-foot, bare-foot-ed. Cp. O.E. clæn-heort = having a clean heart; ân-eage = one-eye-d, four-footed, &c.

3. Adjective and adjective:-

Fool-hardy (fool = foolish). Cp. mad-hardy, bluegreen, rathe-ripe.

- 4. Participial combinations :-
- (a) Noun and pres. part.: earth-shaking, heart-rending, match-making.
- (b) Adjective and pres. part.: ill-looking, time-serving.
- (c) Noun and pass. part.: earth-born, chap-fallen, heart-broken, thunder-struck.
- (d) Adjective and pass. part.: new-made, well-bred, dead-drunk, &c.

III. Verb-Compounds.

- 1. Noun and verb: backbite, hoodwink, henpeck, waylay.
 - 2. Adjective and verb: dry-nurse, white-wash.
- 3. Verb and adverb: doff = do off, don = do on. Cp. cross-question.

For compound adverbs, see § 228, p. 193, 194.

242. COMPOSITION WITH PARTICLES OF ENGLISH ORIGIN.

I. Inseparable Particles.

- a- (O.E. on, E.E. an) on: a-back, a-bed, a-board, a-foot, a-sleep, a-loof, a-skew, a-loud, a-b-aft, a-b-out, a-midst, a-mong, a-thwart, a-fishing, a-hunting, &c.
- I. The original form an occurs in an-on (in one moment), an-ent (see p. 188), a-c-knowledge (O.E. oncnawan), an-vil (O.E. an-filt).
- 2. A- (O.E. of, off, from); a-down = O.E. of dûne, from the down (hill); a-kin, a-new.

The prefix of had an intensitive meaning, like our over and Latin per. Cp. M.E. of-take = overtake; M.E. of-se = perceive.

Of (intensive), exists in a-thirst = O.E. of-thirst; an-hungered = a-hungered, from O.E. of -hyngrian, to feel very hungry. (See Piers Plowman, B. x. 59, p. 146, and C. XII. 43, p. 198).

3. A- (O.E. &-, Goth. us- = out of, from), a-rise, a-rouse, a-f-frighted, a-wake, a-light; a-go = passed by.

" All this world schal a-go."

O. E. Misc. p. 160.

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We have a prehx a- in a-ghast, a-shamed, a-leard, a-lirighted, but it is difficult to say whether its original meaning was *out of* (O.E. a- = Goth. us-), or *from* (O.E. of).

4. A- (O.E. and- Ger. ent-, back). A-long (O.E. and-lang, M.E. ende-long, E.E. an-long, M.E. on-long). An-swer (O.E and-swarian), en-lighten (O.E. onlyhtan).

A-bide (O.E. an-bidan, on-bidan, and-bidan).

A-gain, a-gainst (O.E. on-gean, Ger. ent-gegen). Cp. e-lope (Du. ont-loopen, Ger. ent-laufen).

5. A- (O.E. ge-), a-ware (O.E. ge-war, M.E. i-war), a-like (O.E. ge-lic, ME. i-lich, e-liche, a-liche, o-like).

A-long (of), (O.E. ge-lang, E.E. i-lang, M.E. a-lang).

A-mong (O.E. ge-mang, on-ge-mang, E.E. i-mong, M.E.

o-mang, a-mong).

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A-nough occurs in Milton's Areopagitica, for e-nough (O.E. ge-noh, M.E. enogh, anough). A-readiness (in the Authorised Version of the Scriptures), is from M.E. a-redi, E.E. i-readi, i-redi, O.E ge-râd.

A-f-ford (O. E. ge-forthian, E. E. i-forthien, M. E. a-forthien,

from forth).

6. A- (O.E. & ever): a-ught, e-i-ther.

at- (O.E. æt-): at-one, at-onement, t-wit (O.E. æt-

wîtan, to reproach).

The preposition at is used as a sign of the infinitive in M.E. At do has become corrupted into a-do; we find also to-do (= a-do) used as a substantive.

"Ware we neuer wont a stele."

Cursor Mundi, T. l. 4910.

"For ware we neuer wont at stele."-Ib. C.

be- (O.E. be-, bi- = by). See Adverbs, p. 188.

(1) It renders intransitive verbs transitive, as be-

queath, be-speak, be-think.

(2) It is intensitive in be-daub, be-smear, &c. We find this use of the prefix very common in M.E., as be-bleed, be-drive, be-bark, &c.

(3) With substantives it forms verbs, be-friend, be-troth, and a few others of recent origin.

(4) It enters into the composition of *nouns*, as behalf, be-hest, be-hoof, be-quest, by-name, by-path, by-word, &c.; and of *prepositions* and *adverbs*, as be-fore, be sides, b-ut, &c. Bye-law probably contains the Scandinavian "by," a town.

Be-head = O.E. heafdian, E.E. bi-heavedien, to decapitate.

Be-lieve = O.E. ge-lyfan, M.E. beleuen.

Be-reave = O.E. reafian, E.E. bireavien.

Be-gin = O.E. on-ginnan, E.E. bi-ginnen.

Be-wray is a corruption of the O.E. on-wreon, to discover; O.E. be-wreon, signified to cover; the be is perhaps due to the M.E. bi-traien, to betray.

In be-ware we have the verb be (imper.) and the adjective ware (= cautious).

for- (O.E. for-). The original meaning of this prefix was through, thorough, like Lat. per: for-swear (Lat. per-jurare), for-bid, for-bear, for-get, for-give, for-lorn, fore-go (= for-go). The p. p. fore-gone is rare.

For-do occurs also in the place of the modern do for. Cp. Lat. per-dere. Spenser has for-pined, for-wasted, for-wearied. We sometimes find for joined to Romance roots, as, for-fend = defend, forbid; for-barred, barred up, debarred.

From the sense of overmuch comes that of amiss, badly, in

fore-speak, fore-spent.

fore- (O.E. fore, Lat. præ, before): fore-bode, fore-cast, fore-tell, fore-said, fore-father, fore-noon, fore-sight, fore-head.

fore-gone, the p. p. of fore-go (rarely used), to go before, must be distinguished from fore-go (= for-go), and fore-gone (= for-gone).

gain- (O.E. gegn, gean) = against. Cp. a-gain. Gain-say, gain-stand, gain-strive, gain-giving.

Cp. M.E. gein-come = return; gain-sawe = contradiction: again was once used as a prefix. Cp. M. E. ayen-bite = remorse. ayen-byggen = redeem, ayen-wizte = counterpoise.

i-, y- (O.E. ge-, M.E. i-). This prefix was once a sign of the pass. part., as, y-clept, y-chained (Milton). It is wrongly used in y-pointing (Milton, On Shakespeare). It enters into the composition of i-wis (O.E. ge-wis, truly, certainly), ever-y-where, hand-y-work.

mis- (O.E. mis-), wrong, ill. Cp. a-mis (= on the wrong, M.E. misse wrong, injury): misbehave, mis-deed, mis-lead, mis-trust, mis-take; mis-like, (in Shakespeare) has become dis-like.

For mis- in mischief, see p. 243.

nether-, (O.E. ni-ther) = down, below: netherstocks, nether-lands.

sand- (O.E. sâm, half): sand-blind = half-blind.

"Wrinkled, sand-blind, toothless, and deformed."-BURTON. Anatomy of Melancholy, ed. 1845, p. 70.

Cp. O.E. sam-cwic = half-alive; M.E. sam-hale = half-whole, lame (Cursor Mundi, 1. 5153); "chiries sam-rede" = half-ripe (Piers Plowman, C. Text, ix. 311, p. 155).

to- (O.E. to-). This is an adverbial form of two (cp. Lat. dis-) signifying asunder, in pieces: O.E. tobrecan = to break to pieces, to-dalan = to divide; E.E. to-don, to do asunder; to-fleon, to fly asunder; M.E. to-pullen, to pull to pieces, &c.

It sometimes has an intensitive force, and is strengthened by the adverb all (quite).

"And all to- brake his skull."

Judges IX. 5, 3.

"Al is to- broken thilke regioun."

CHAUCER, Knightes Tale, 1. 2759.

Go to (used as an interjection in Hamlet i. 3) seems to correspond to to-go = O.E. to-gan, to go away, depart; cp. for-do and do-for.

For the phrase "all to," see all, § 243.

to- is the ordinary preposition "to" in to-day, to-night, to-morrow, to-gether, here-to-fore, to-ward.

un- (O.E. on-, Goth. and-, Ger. ent-) = back (with verbs): un-bind, un-do, un-fold, un-lock, un-wind.

un- (O.E. un-) = not (with adjectives, and nouns formed from adjectives): un-true, un-wise, un-told, un-just, un-truth.

wan- (O.E. wan-) wan-ing, want-ing: wan-hope = despair; wan-ton = wan-towen, untrained, wild; -towen is the O.E. togen, p.p. of the O.E. verb te-on, lead, draw. Cp. Ger. un-ge-zogen.

with- (O.E. with-, a shortened form of wi-ther), against, back: with-draw, with-hold, with-stand.

243. II. Separable Particles.

After (O.E. after): after-growth, after-math, after-clap, after-dinner, after-ward.

All (O.E. eal): al-mighty, al-one, l-one, l-onely, l-onesome, al-to-gether, al-most, al-though, al-so, a-s.

All, meaning quite, is very often joined to the adverb to (too), and was made to precede the prefix to- in composition. (See to- p. 220).

"All to dirtied."—LATIMER.
"All to ruffled."—MILTON.

M.E. "Al to longe."

Life of Beket, 774.

E.E. "Al to wel."

Friana, p. 50.

Forth (O.E. forth): forth-coming, forth-going for-ward (O.E. forth-weard).

"From that day forthward man most nedes deie."—Trevisa. Cp. E.E. forth-fare = departure, forth-gong = progress, &c.

Fro, from (O.E. fram, O.N. fra): fro-ward, fromward.

In (O.E. m): in-come, in-land, in-sight, in-born, in-bred, in-wardly, in-ly, in-lay, in-fold, in-to.

In many verbs in has been replaced by a Romance form (en-, em-): en-dear, em-bitter.

Of (O.E. of = from, off): of-fal, off-set, off-shoot, off-spring. See a-, pp. 217-8.

In M.E. we find of-schreden, shred off; of-smiten, smite off; E.E. of-springen, to spring from.

On (O.E. on, upon, forward): on-set, on-slaught, on-ward.

Out, ut (O.E. ût): out-come, out-let, out-break, out-pour, out-cast, out-joint, out-law, out-landish, out-side, out-ward, ut-ter. It sometimes signifies beyond, over, as in out-bid, out-do.

Over (O.E. ofer): above, beyond, exceedingly, too:—

- (1) With nouns and adjectives: over-eating, over-flow, over-plus (E.E. over-eke), over-joy, over-big, over-much.
- (2) With verbs: over-flow, over-hang, over-run, over-take, over-work, over-whelm, over-hear, over-look.

Over (O.E. *ufe-ra*, E.E. *uve-re*, superior; cp. a-b-ove): over-coat, over-man; M.E. over-lippe = upper-lip; ofer-hand = upper-hand.

Through, thorough (O.E. thurk, E.E. thurkh):

thorough-fare (M.E. thurgh-fare), through-out, thorough-bred, through-train.

Cp. E.E. thurgh-feren (to go through), thurh-driven, thurh-seken, thurh-wunian (to remain); M.E. thorow-bore (bore through), thorow-ride, &c.

Under (O.E. under): under-go, under-stand, under-lay, under-mine, under-let, under-sell; under-growth, under-ling, under-wood, under-hand, under-neath.

Up (O.E. up): up-bear, up-braid, up-hold, up-heave, up-lifted, up-land, up-shot, up-right, up-start, up-ward, up-on.

244. SUFFIXES OF ROMANIC ORIGIN.

Under the head of Romanic suffixes we must distinguish (1) those Latin suffixes that have a Norman French form; (2) those suffixes that are unchanged, being borrowed directly from the Latin language; (3) modern French and other Romance endings of Latin origin.

Voy-age comes through N. French; its Latin form is vi-aticum. Cp. beni-son with benedic-tion,

charn-el and carn-al, &c.

Liquour has a N. French form; liquour comes to us from modern French; cp. antic (N.Fr.), antique Fr. Cavalc-ade, escap-ade, are Italian words that have come to us through the French. The true French forms are chevauch-ée and échapp-ée; other forms in -ade (originally -ado), come to us directly from the Spanish language, as crus-ade, brav-ado, torn-ado, &c.; cp. prem-ier (Fr.), prim-ary (Lat.), prim-er

(N.Fr.) Many suffixes of Norman French origin have now no living power, not being used to form new derivatives.

I. Noun Suffixes.

-age (Lat. -aticum), forms abstract nouns: advantage, bever-age, cour-age, hom-age.

It sometimes denotes the place where, as in hermit

age, parson-age.

Till-age and cott-age are hybrids.

-ain, -an, -en, -on (Lat. -anus): chapl-ain, chieft ain, vill-ain, pelic-an, peas-ant, ward-en (= guard ian), sext-on (= sacrist-an), surge-on, sover-eign.

Modern formations, having no corresponding Latin form in -anus, are antiquari-an, barbari-an, civili-an, grammari-an, librari-an, &c.

From modern French come artis-an, courtes-an,

partis-an.

-ain (Lat. -aneus), appears in -mount-ain, camp-aign, champaign.

-al, -el (Lat. -alis): can-al, cardin-al, cathedr-al, coron. al, spitt-al, chann-el, catt-le, chatt-el, fu-el, iew-el, &c.

Lat. -alia (pl.) appears in batt-le, entr-ail, marv-el, rasc-al, spous-als, victu-als.

-ant, -ent (Lat. -antem, -entem) are participial suffixes, sometimes marking the agent :-

Coven-ant, gi-ant, merch-ant, serge-ant, brig-and, diam-ond, innoc-cent, stud-ent.

-ance, -ence (Lat. -ant-ia), form abstract nouns:-Abund-ance, allegi-ance, ch-ance (= cad-ence), purvey-ance (= provid-ence), obeis-ance (obedi-ence), prudence, sci-ence, &c.

-ancy, -ency, are new formations from the Latin -antia, -entia, becoming (1) -antie, -entie, (2) -ancie, -encie, &c., brilli-ancy, excell-ency, &c.

sé-ance is from modern French.

-and, -end (Lat. -andus, -endus), are gerundial suffixes:—

- (1) Garl-and, vi-and, leg-end, prov-end-er.
- (2) Memor-andum retains its Latin form; (3) preb-end, reprimand, are directly from Modern French.
- -ar, -er, -or (Lat. -arium), marks the place where; it enters into the name of some common objects:—
- (1) Cell-ar, mort-ar, chart-er, dow-er, sampl-er, garn-er, lard-er, sauc-er, man-or.
- (2) -ary (Lat. -arium), gran-ary, (= garn-er), avi-ary, semin-ary, viv-ary.

In M.E. we find O.Fr. -aire in sal-arie, seyntu-arie (sanctuary), lettu-arie = electuary.

- (1) -ar, -er, -or (Lat. -arius), marks the agent: calend-ar, vic-ar, arch-er, butch-er, butl-er, carpent-er, farri-er, messeng-er, treasur-er, bachel-or, chancell-or, coun-sell-or.
 - (2) -ary (Lat. -arius): advers-ary, secret-ary, &c.

Commiss-arie = commissary, not-arie = not-ary, are met with in M.E. and the suffix is owing to the O.Fr. -aire, not -arie. See -ry, p. 230.

-ard (Low Lat. -ardus, Ger. -hart, Eng. hard): cow-ard, dull-ard, nigg-ard, buzz-ard, tank-ard, &c.

Bragg-ar-t, dastar-d, lollar-d (cp. schol-ard for schol-ar), must be excluded from this list.

Sweet-heart has perhaps replaced an original sweet-ard. (Cp. Ger. lieb-hart).

-ate (N. Fr. -at, Lat. -atus, pass. part.): cur-ate, leg-ate, reneg-ate.

Most nouns in -ate are of recent origin; -ade is the Spanish form of -ate. Cp. reneg-ade = reneg-ate. Advocate has replaced M.E. avocat, Fr. avocat.

-ee (Fr. -ée, Lat. -atus, suffix of pass. part.), marks the agent in a passive sense.

Appell-ee, legat-ee, trust-ee, &c., are from Modern

-eer, -ier (Fr. -er, -ier; Lat. -arius): engin-eer, mountain-eer, harpoon-er, brigad-ier, prem-ier, chandelier, are from Modern French. See -ar, -er, p. 225, for the N. French form.

-el (Lat. -ela): cant-el, cand-le, quarr-el, tut-el-age.
-el (Lat. -ellus, -ellum): bush-el, bow-el, chanc-el,

mors-el, cast-le, mant-le, pann-el, pomm-el.

-en, -in (Lat. -enus, -ena, -enum): ali-en, warr-en, flor-in, cha-in, verm-in, ven-om.

-er (Lat. -eria): gart-er, gutt-er, matt-er, pray-er.

Barrier is the Modern-French barr-ière. See -ry, p. 230.

-erel, -rel, has a diminutive force: cock-erel, dott-erel, mack-erel, pick-rel, pick-erel; T.E. daint-rel = a dain-ty.

-ern (Lat. -erna): cav-ern, cist-ern, tav-ern (cp. tab-ern-acle).

-et, -ot (N. Fr. -et, -ot; Fr. -et, -ette; -at, -ot), is a diminutive suffix.

Blank-et, cygn-et, hatch-et, pock-et, tick-et, chari-ot, fagg-ot, parr-ot.

-et, -ot, -ette (see above): ball-et, ball-ot, bill-ot, paroqu-et, ettiqu-ette, coqu-ette, from Modern French.

To the original -et has been prefixed 1 (for el),

making a new diminutive suffix, -let in ham-let, stream-let, &c. See -el, p. 226.

-ess (Lat. -issa), sign of the feminine gender.

See p. 66, § 85.

ess, -ice, -ise (Lat. -itia): distr-ess, larg-ess, lach-ess, rich-es, prow-ess, franch-ise, merchand-ise, avar-ice, coward-ice, just-ice; M.E. covet-eise has become covet-ous-ness.

Serv-ice = Lat. serv-itium; burg-ess = O.F. burgeis, court-cous (= M.E. curt-eis), and marq-uis contain Latin -ensis.

-ice, -ise (Lat. -icen): matr-ice, pum-ice, pent-house (= pent-ise), jud-ge, partrid-ge, paun-ch.

-ice (Lat. -icius): apprent-ice, nov-ice, surpl-ice,

pil-ch (= pel-isse).

-ic, -c (Lat. -icus, -ica, Gr. ικός): log-ic, mus-ic, phys-ic, heret-ic, cler-k (= cler-ic), por-ch, per-ch, ser-ge, for-ge (= fabr-ic).

-icle (Lat. -iculus): art-icle, part-icle.

Icicle = O.E. îs-gic-el = ice-jag. Cp. Iseyokels in footnote to Piers Plowman, B. XVII. 227, p. 315.

-iff (Lat. -ivus): bail-iff, cait-iff (= cap-tive), plaint-

iff. See -ive, p. 234.

-ine, -in (Lat. -inus): div-ine, fam-ine, medic-ine, bas-in, citr-in, cous-in, gobl-in, pilgr-im (= pere-gr-ine), rav-ine.

Latin atonic -ina disappeared in Old French, hence English dame, page; Modern French has reintroduced it under the form, -ine, whence our machine.

in (Lat. -inem): marg-in, orig-in, virg-in.

-ism (Lat. -ismus; Gr. -ισμος): de-ism, fatal-ism, ego-t-ism. Many are direct from the Greek, as bar-bar-ism, lacon-ism.

No words of N.Fr. origin end in -ism. Cp. M.E. sophime = sophism.

-ist (Lat. -ista, Gr. $\iota_{G^{-\tau}\iota_{I}G}$): bapt-ist, evangel-ist, chor-ist-er; M.E. soph-ist-er = soph-ist.

More recent forms are dent-ist, de-ist, exorc-ist,

flor-ist, medall-ist, novel-ist, and numerous others.

-ite (Lat. -ita, Fr. -ite) forms patronymics: Israel-ite, Jesu-it.

-id (Lat. -id-, Gr. -ιδ-, Fr. -ide): Æne-id, Nere-id. Many modern chemical words end in -id, as alkalo-id.

-le (Lat. -ulus, -ula, -ulum): fab-le, tab-le, stab-le, peop-le; with preceding c (which is sometimes lost), we have artic-le, mirac-le, pinnac-le, obstac-le, appar-el, dams-el, fenn-el, lent-il, parc-el (= partic-le), penc-il, per-il.

Modern forms in -bule, -cle, -cule, are borrowed directly from the Latin.

-l-ence (Lat. -l-entia) forms abstract nouns. There are very few of these forms in M.E. We find pesti-lence and vio-lence; other forms are quite recent. See -lent, p. 234.

-lency is sometimes found for -lence, like -ency for

-ence.

-let. See -et, p. 226.

-m, -me (Lat. -men): char-m, real-m, cri-me, nou-n, re-now-n, leav-en (= Lat. leva-men, Fr. lev-ain).

-me, the modern French form is contained in alu-m, legu-me, volu-me, regi-me.

-men, the original Lat. form, is retained in all later loans, as acu-men, bitu-men, &c.

-m, -me (Lat. -ma, Gr. -μa): baptis-m, phanto-m (= phantas-m), the-me.

From modern French we have borrowed diade-m, anagra-m, emble-m, proble-m.

From the Greek we get anagram, epigra-m, paradig-m, panora-ma, enthusias-m, pleonas-m, telegram.

-ment (Lat. -mentum): argu-ment, command-ment, enchant-ment, gar-ment, nourish-ment, oint-ment, parliament.

It is added to Teutonic words, as, acknowledgement, atone-ment, bereave-ment, fulfil-ment, &c.

-mony (Lat. -mon-iu-m, -mon-ia), cere-mony, matri-mony, testi-mony.

-on, -eon, -ion, -in (Lat. -onem, -ionem), form many nouns denoting act of, state of: apr-on, bac-on, cap-on, falc-on, fel-on, gall-on, glutt-on, mas-on, mutt-on, simplet-on, tal-on, champ-ion, compan-ion, clar-ion, marchion-ess, on-ion, stall-ion, scorp-ion, pant-ion, pig-eon, scutch-eon, sturg-eon, trunch-eon.

The N.Fr. forms of the suffix were, (1) -un, iun; (2) -oun, ioun.

-oon (Fr. -on, Ital. -one), ball-oon, bat-oon, drag-oon, harp-oon, sal-oon, buff-oon, poltr-oon, are not from N. French.

Some words in -oon seem to be augmentatives, as, ball-oon, sal-oon, &c.; others are diminutives, as, haberge-on, flag-on.

-our (Lat. -orem): ard-our, col-our, fav-our, hon-our, lab-our, lang-our, liqu-our, rum-our.

The Modern French form is -eur, as, ard-eur, grand-eur, liqueur; the N.Fr. was (1) -ur, (2) -our.

-or, -our, -er, (Lat. -torem): jur-or, govern-our, emper-or, antl-er, compil-er, divin-er, found-er, preach-er, juggl-er, lev-er.

N. Fr. -our has become -er in receiv-er, robb-er, trench er.

-tor (Lat. -torem): audi-tor, doc-tor, proc-tor, traitor, au-thor, indi-ter.

-our, -or, -er (Lat. -orium, -oria): min-or, parl-our, raz-or, viz-or, sciss-ors, count-er, cens-er, lav-er, (= lavat-ory), mang-er, covert-ure.

In M.E. we find a few forms in -orie = ory. (Cp. Fr. -oire,) as lavat-orie, orat-orie, purgat-orie.

-oir (Fr. -oir, Lat. -orium): abatt-oir, from modern French.

-ory, the full form of Lat. -orium, occurs in auditory, dormit-ory, refect-ory, repert-ory.

-ry, -ery (N. Fr. -erie): fai-ry, hazard-ry, jew-ry, poet-ry, poult-ry, spice-ry, surg-ery, cook-ery, house-wife-ry, mid-wife-ry.

We have a large number of words with this ending unknown to Middle English: as, slave-ry, peasant-ry, thieve-ry, witch-ery, trump-ery.

-ry (Lat. -aria): chival-ry, caval-ry, carpent-ry, pant-ry, vint-ry. Cp. the modern forms, chapel-ry, deane-ry, &c.

-ry (Lat. -arium): dow-ry, laund-ry, vest-ry, treasu-ry.

-son (Lat. -sionem): beni-son, mali-son, le-s-son, ori-son, pri-son, ran-som, rea-son, sea-son, trea-son, veni-son, fashi-on.

With these compare the parallel forms that have come into our language direct from Latin: benedic-tion, male-dic-tion, lec-tion, ora-tion, po-tion, redemp-tion, ra-tion, tradi-tion, fac-tion.

Many words now ending in -tion, as, nation, salvation, &c., once ended in -ciun (E.E.), -cioun, -cion (M.E.)

-sion (Lat. -sionem): conver-sion, man-sion, pen-sion,

pas-sion, pri-son, pro-ces-sion, vi-sion, &c.; with foi-son (plenty), compare pro-fu-sion.

-sy (Lat. -sia, Gr. -σις): catalep-sy, drop-sy, pal-sy,

(= paraly-sis), fren-sy.

Nouns ending in -sis are modern words that have come direct from Greek.

-se, a still shorter form of this suffix, occurs in apocalyp-se, ba-se, eclip-se.

-t (Lat. -tus): conduc-t, conven-t, frui-t, strai-t,

sain-t. See y, p. 232.

-t (Lat. -tum): deb-t, fea-t (= fac-t), join-t, poin-t.

-t (Lat. -ta): aun-t, ren-t, &c. See y, p. 232.

-t, -te (Lat. -ta, Gr. -της): aposta-te, come-t, hermi-t, plane-t, prophe-t, idio-t.

-ter (Lat. -ter): mis-ter, mas-ter (= magis-ter),

minis-ter, fri-ar (Lat. fra-ter).

-tery (Lat. -terium): mas-tery, minis-tery.

-tor (Lat. -tor). See p. 230.

-dor in battle-dor, mata-dor, is a Spanish form.

-trix (Lat. -trix), a feminine suffix. See p. 67.

-ter, -tre (Lat. -trum, Gr. -τρον): clois-ter, spec-tre, scep-tre.

The full form occurs in modern words, as, "spectrum analysis."

Another form of -trum is -crum, in sepul-chre; brum in mem
-brum. Cp. candela-brum, cere-brum.

-tude (Lat. -tudinem): beati-tude, multi-tude, &c., are direct from Latin. Cus-tom = Lat. consuetudinem.

-ty (Lat. -tatem): beau-ty, boun-ty, chari-ty, cruel-ty, feal-ty, (= fidelity), frail-ty, &c.

-ule. See -le, p. 228.

-ure (Lat. -ura): advent-ure, apert-ure, creat-ure,

forfeit-ure, nat-ure, nurt-ure, meas-ure, past-ure, sepult-ure, stat-ure, vest-ure.

Arm-our = M. Lat. armatura.

-y (Lat. -ia): cop-y, famil-y, felon-y, nav-y, stor-y, victor-y, &c., Ital-y, Arab-y and Arab-ia.

-y (Lat. -ium): horolog-y, jo-y, stud-y. Directly from the Latin are formed augur-y, obsequ-y, remed-y, &c.

-y (Lat. atus): attorn-ey, deput-y, all-y.

Many words in -cy, -sy, are formed on the model of Fr. words in -cie, Lat. -tia:—cura-cy, minstrel-cy, &c. Cp. degene ra-cy, intima-cy, &c., the corresponding adjectives of which end in -cte.

-y (Lat. -t-us), cler-g-y: coun-t-y, duch-y, trea-t-y.

-y (Lat. -ta), arm-y: embass-y, chimn-ey, countr-y, dela-y, destin-y, entr-y, journ-ey, jur-y, part-y, vall-ey. See -ee, p. 226.

-y (Lat. -ies): progen-y.

II. Adjective Suffixes.

-al (Lat. -alis), annu-al, besti-al, casu-al, equ-al, loy-al (= leg-al), roy-al (= reg-al), &c. See p. 224.

-al forms many new derivatives, as, festiv-al, celesti-al, comic-al, mathematic-al.

-an, -ain (Lat. -anus): cert-ain, germ-an, germ-ain, hum-an, me-an.

There are numerous adjectives in -an, of recent formation that have no corresponding Latin form in -anus: agrari-an, barbari-an, diluvi-an, pedestri-an. See an, p. 224.

-ane (Lat. -anus): hum-ane, transmont-ane are

-ant, -ent: err-ant, ramp-ant, trench-ant, obedi-ent, pati-ent, &c. See -ant, -ent, p. 224.

-ar (Lat. -aris): famili-ar, regul-ar, singul-ar.

-ary (Lat-arius): contr-ary, necess-ary, second-ary. See -ar, p. 225.

Arbitr-ary, disciplin-ary, honor-ary, and many English derivatives in -ary, having no Latin form in -arius.

The Lat. -arius is sometimes changed into -arious, as, nefarious, greg-ari-ous. Sometimes -an is added to -ari, as, agr-ari-an, antiqu-ari-an, &c.

-atic (Lat. -aticus): fan-atic, lun-atic.

Most nouns in -atic, -tic, come directly from the Latin, as aqu-atic, rus-tic, domes-tic, &c. See -age, p. 224.

-ate (Lat. -atus): delic-ate, desol-ate, determin-ate, and some few other words in -ate are found in M.E. coming directly from the Latin. But most words with this ending are modern formations.

Had these words come from N. Fr. they would end in -y. Compare privy, secret, (Fr. privé), with private.

-ble, -able (Lat. -bilis): accept-able, abomin-able, fee-ble, foi-ble (= fle-bilis), mov-able, sta-ble.

The suffix -able is added to many Romance stems: as, agree-able, change-able, favour-able, deceiv-able, &c.

It is also added to Teutonic stems: as, break-able, eat-able, laugh-able, sale-able.

Terms in -ible, as aud-ible, vis-ible, are formed directly from the Latin.

-ble (Lat. -plex): dou-ble (= du-ple), tre-ble (= tri-ple).

-ese (Ital. -ese, Lat. -ensis): Chin-ese, Malt-ese. See p. 227.

[Chap.

-esque (Fr. -esque, Lat. -iscus): burl-esque, grot-esque, pictur-esque; morrice (dance) = mor-esco i.e. Moorish. This -esque is allied to English -ish, hence the forms · Fren-ch and Dan-ish, in which the Fr. suffix is anglicised.

-ac (Lat. -acus): demoni-ac, mani-ac.

-ic (Lat. -icus, -ica, -icum): aromat-ic, barbar-ic, frant-ic, schismat-ic. See p. 227.

It is often combined with -al, as cler-ic-al, magic-al, mus-ic-al. &c.

In Old French icus became i, whence our enem-v = Fr, ennemi, Lat. inimicus; Fr. p-ie = p-ica; -ique is the modern Fr. form. Cp. ant-ic (old form), with ant-ique (modern derivative).

-id (Lat. -idus): ac-id, pall-id, tep-id, rig-id, &c.

In N.Fr. this -id disappears or is changed. Cp. Eng. neat. Fr. net, Lat. nit-idus. In modern learned Fr. words -ide is used as rig-ide, sap-ide, &c.

-ile (Lat -ilis): frag-ile, ster-ile, &c.

-1, -le (Lat. -e-lis, -i-lis): cru-e-l, civ-i-l, frai-l (= frag-i-le), ab-le, subt-le, gent-le.

-ine (Lat. -inus): div-ine, citr-in.

Most of the words in -ine are of modern formation: as, aquil-ine, can-ine, genu-ine, infant-ine, &c.

-ive (Lat. -ivus): able to, inclined to, act-ive, attentive, fugit-ive, pens-ive, &c. See -iff, p. 227.

In Early and Middle English these adjectives ended in -if: as, actif, attentif, &c. The f has dropped off in hasty, jolly, testy. Cp. massive with T.E. massy; and baily = bailiff. We have a large number of modern derivatives in -ive, as, coerc-ive, conclus-ive, affirmat-ive, &c. We have one hybrid, talk-ative.

-lent (Lat. -l-entus) full of: corpu-lent, opu-lent, violent, &c.

-ory (Lat. -orius): amat-ory, mandat-ory, &c.

-ose (Lat. -osus): bellic-ose, joc-ose, mor-ose.

-ous (Lat. -osus) full, like: copi-ous, curi-ous, danger-ous, fam-ous, lepr-ous, &c.

-ous also represents Lat. -us in the following :-

(I) Assidu-ous, continu-ous, ingenu-ous, &c.

(2) Anxi-ous, arbore-ous, &c.

(3) In the endings -vorous, -fluous, -par-ous:—omnivor-ous, superflu-ous, ovipar-ous, &c.

The use of -ous has been much extended in modern English. It is added to adjective stems, as, alacrious, asper-ous, atroci-ous precipit-ous, carbonifer-ous.

It occurs in many modern derivatives, as contra-

dict-ious, felicit-ous, joy-ous.

It is added to some few Teutonic roots, as murderous.

Court-eous = E.E. curt-eis, O.Fr. curt-eis, court-ois.

Boister-ous = M.E. bostois, boist-ous, bostwys, from Welsh bwystus, rough, rude.

Right-eous. Here -eous is a corruption of -wise. See § 238,

p. 213.

Wondr-ous. Here -ous is for the adverbial suffix -s.

"This matter is wonders precious."

Everyman, O.E. Plays, ed. Hazlitt, I. p. 99.

Wonder (used as an adverb) = O.E. wundr-um.

Wondr-ous-ly = wonder-s-ly = M.E. wonderly.

"Of the elements so wondersly formed."

The Four Elements, ed. Hazlitt, p. 16.

-t, -te (Lat. -tus), discree-t, straigh-t, strai-t, modes-t, hones-t, chas-te, mu-te.

Words like elect, perfect, distinct, &c. have come direct from the Latin.

In Fr. the c disappears before t. Cp. strait and strict.

-und, -ond (Lat. -undus): ro-und (= rot-und), joc-und, sec-ond.

-y (Lat. -ous): spong-y, (Lat. spongiosus). We find spongious in Gerarde's Herbal.

-y (N.Fr. -*if*, Lat. -*ivus*): hast-y, joll-y, mass-y, test-y. See -ive, p. 234.

III. Verbal Suffixes.

-ate (Lat. -atus, the ending of the pass. part.) forms verbs from Latin and French verbs: agit-ate, alien-ate, assassin-ate, &c.; and from nouns and adjectives: accentu-ate, filtr-ate, superannu-ate, &c.

-ise, -ize (Lat. -izare, Fr. iser, Gr. -ιζω) forms verbs from nouns and adjectives: colon-ize, pulver-ize, civil-

ize, fertil-ize.

-ish (Lat. esc-o; Fr. -iss in the pres. part. of verbs in -ir): establ-ish, flour-ish, fin-ish, nour-ish, pol-ish, &c.

fy (Lat. -ficare, Fr. -fier): edi-fy, magni-fy, signi-fy.

245. COMPOSITION WITH ROMANIC PREFIXES.

Words with these prefixes are divisible into two classes, (1) those that have come from the Latin through the Norman French, (2) those that have come directly from the Latin. The first class of words is of course the oldest. See § 244, p. 223.

A, av (Fr. a, av; Lat. a, ab, abs, away from):

(1) A-vaunt (Fr. a-vant; Lat. ab-ante), a-d-vance, a-d-vantage, a-vert, a-bridge, a-s-soil (absolve), abstain, ab-ound, ab-use.

(2) Ab-dicate, ab-sent, abs-cond, &c.

A, ad (O.Fr. ad, a; Fr. à; Lat. ad, to):-

By assimilation ad- becomes ac-, af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at-.

(1) A-bate, ac-quaint (M.Lat. ad-cognitare), ac-quit,

ac-cord, (O.Fr. a-cointer), a-c-count.

A-chieve, ac-cuse, a-d-venture, (M.E. a-venture), ad-journ (M.E. ajorne), ad-join, ad-verse, ad-versary, af-firm, af-fiance, af-finity, af-ford, a-gree, ag-grieve, (M.E. ag-regge and a-greve), a-d-monish (M.E. a-moneste), a-mount, a-merce, al-ledge, al-ly, al-low, ap-parel, ap-pear, ap-pease, ap-ply, ap-proach, ar-rive, as-sail, as-sault (M.E. asaute), as-size, as-suage, as-semble, at-tain, a-venge, a-vow.

Cp. the later loans adieu, adroit, alarm, alert, apart, &c.

(2) Ad-apt, ac-cept, ac-cumulate, ag-gravate, alleviate, an-nex, &c.

An, ante (Fr. ans, ains; Lat. ante):-

(1) An-cestor (M.E. ancessoure), an-cestry, v-anguard (= Fr. av-ant-garde).

(2) Ante-cede, ante-meridian, ante-chamber.

(3) Ante-date, anti-cipate, seem formed on the model of the Fr. anti-dater, anti-cipier.

Circum, circu (Lat. circum, around) :-

Circum-cise, circu-it, are found in M.E.

Modern compounds with this prefix are very common: circum-scribe, circum-stance, &c.

Co, com, con (Fr. co, com, con; Lat. cum, with):—
Com becomes col before l, cor before r, and co before yowels.

(1) Col-late, com-mand, com-mon, com-pany,

con-ceive, con-ceit, con-demn, con-duit, con-found. con-strue, con-vey, con-voy, &c.; coun-sel, countenance, co-vent, con-vent.

Couch (Lat. collocare); count (Lat. computare), cost (Lat. constare), custom (Lat. consuetudinem), cover, (Lat. co-operire), curry (Fr. cor-royer, for O. Fr. con-roi; Lat, con-redum,) (redum = arrangements from a Teutonic root red to arrange. Cp. Flemish reden. Goth. raidian, to prepare, make ready).

Quail, to curdle (Fr. coailler, Lat. coagulare).

- (2) Modern forms are very numerous: col-locate. com-prehend, con-duct, cor-relation, co-eval, co-executor, &c.
- (3) Co is sometimes joined to Teutonic roots, as. co-worker, co-elder.

Counter, contra (Fr. contre: Lat. contra, against):

The N.Fr. form counter is used as a separate word in "to run counter to." It has given rise to the verb en-counter (M. E. countren).

- (1) Counter-feit, counter-plead, counter-pane, cont-roller (cp. Fr. contrôle = contre-rôle), contr-ary, contra-diction.
- (2) Counter-act, counter-balance, counter-mand, contravene, contro-vert, &c.
 - (3) contra-band is a modern French loan.

De (Fr. de, de; Lat. de, down, from, away):-

(1) De-ceive, de-ceit, de-clare, de-cline, de-crease. de-fend, de-feat, de-form, de-gree, de-light, de-ny, de-liver, de-nounce, de-prave, de-serve, de-sire, descend, de-scry, (= de-scribe), de-spise, de-spite, destroy, de-vise, de-vour, &c.

Di-s-dain (M.E. dedain), di-still (M.E. destylle).

(2) De-ception, de-fect, de-lectable, &c.

De, dis, di (Fr. dés, dé; Lat. dis, di, asunder, in two, difference, negation):—

In E.E. and M.E. the prefix dis has its N.Fr. form des or de.

(1) De-part, de-fy, de-lay, dis-cover, dis-charge, disguise, dis-honour, display, dis-turb, dis-please, dispute, &c.

(2) Dis-cern, di-gest, dif-fer, &c.

(3) Deluge = mod. Fr. déluge, Lat. di-luvium.

(4) The following are hybrids: dis-believe (= mis-believe), dis-like (= mislike), dis-own, &c.

E, es, ex (Fr. es, e; Lat. ex, out of, from):

(1) E-late, e-lection, as-say, es-say, es-cape, is-sue, es-pecial, s-pecial, s-ample (= ex-ample), ens-ample, ex-amine, ex-cite, ex-cuse, ex-ile, a-mend (= e-mend), a-fraid (Lat. exfrigidare) a-bash = O.Fr. es-bahir.

(2) Ex-alt, e-lect, ex-ecute, ex-empt, ex-pect, &c.; ex-emperor, ex-mayor.

(3) Efface, élite (= elect), are from modern French. Extra (Lat. extra, beyond.)

(1) Extra-ordinary, extra-vagant.

(2) Extra-work, extra-freight, are hybrids.

Em, en, in (Fr. em, en; Lat. in, in, into, on):-

(1) Em-balm, em-bellish, em-brace, en-chant, en-counter, en-cumber, en-dite, en-dow, en-gage, en-force, en-hance, en-join, en-joy, en-rich, en-tice, en-treat, en-viron, en-vy, &c.; an-oint, am-bush, im-pair, im-prison, il-lusion, in-cense, in-cline, in-quire (en-quire).

Many words once beginning with en- now have in-.

- (2) In-nate, il-lumine, im-migrate, &c.
- (3) Hybrids are em-bolden, en-shrine, en-dear, &c.

In (Lat. in, not):-

- (1) In-nocent, in-constance, in-fant, im-perfect (= M.E. imparfit).
 - (2) It is prefixed to nouns, adjectives, and verbs:
 - (a) In-convenience, im-piety, il-liberality.
 - (b) In-cautious, im-politic, il-legal, ir-regular.
- (c) In-capacitate, in-dispose, il-legalize, im-mortalize.

Un often takes the place of in, as un-able, un-apt, un-certain. &c.

Enter, inter, intro (O.Fr. enter; Fr. entre; Lat. inter, intro, within, between) :-

- (1) Enter-prise, enter-tain, inter-dict (= M.E. enter-dite), inter-change (M.E. enter-change).
 - (2) Inter-cept, inter-sect, intro-duce, &c.

Ob (Lat. ob, in front of, against):—

(1) Ob-lige, ob-ev, oc-cupy, of-fer, of-fend, offence, of-fice, op-pose.

(2) Ob-ject, ob-struct, oc-cur, of-ficiate, &c.

Per (O.Fr. per; Fr. par; Lat. per, through):-

- (1) Per-ceive, per-form, per-ish, par-don, pursue.
 - (2) Per-jure, per-secute, pel-lucid, pol-lute, &c.

Post (Lat. post, after) :-

- (1) Puny = Fr. puiné, O.Fr. puis-né, Lat. post natus.
- (2) Post-pone, post-date, post-script, &c.

Pre (Fr. pré; Lat. præ, before):-

(1) Pre-cept, pre-face, pre-late, pre-sence, pre-tend, pro-vost, pre-ach (= Lat. pradicare).

(2) Modern formations are numerous: pre-dict,

pre-cinct, pre-announce, &c.

Preter (Fr. préter; Lat. præter, past):-

(1) Preter-ite, preter-mit.

(2) Preter-natural, preter-perfect.

Par, pur, pro (Fr. por, pour; Lat. pro, forth, forward, before):—

- (1) Por-tray, pur-chase, pur-pose, pur-sue, pur-vey, pro-cede, pro-cess, pro-cure, pro-nounce.
 - (2) Pro-vide, pro-pose, pro-consul, pro-noun.
 - (3) Por-trait = Fr. pour-trait.

Re, red (Fr. re; Lat. red, re, back, again):-

(1) Re-bell, re-ceive, re-claim, re-creant, re-cover, re-join, re-nounce, re-member, re-pair, re-pent, re-prove, re-quire, re-store, re-semble, re-treat, r-ally (Lat. re-alligare), re-n-der (Lat. red-dere), red-ound.

(2) Modern formations: re-probate, re-duce, re-act

&c.

(3) Re-but = Fr. re-buter.

(4) Hybrids: re-build, re-mind, re-new, &c.

Retro (Fr. rière; Lat. retro):-

- (1) Rear-ward, arrear, rear. Cp. M.E. arerage (arrears).
 - (2) Retro-grade, retro-spect, &c.

Se, sed (Fr. sé; Lat. sed-, se, apart, away):-

- (1) Se-ver, se-veral.
- (2) Se-clude, se-parate, sed-ition, &c.

Sub, so (O.Fr. so; Fr. se, su, sou; Lat. sub, under, up from below):—

- (1) Sub-tle, suc-cour (M.E. socour), suc-ceed, suf-fer, sum-mons, sup-pose, sus-tain, so-journ, &c.
- (2) Sub-jection, suc-cinct, sug-gest, &c. It denotes (a) diminution, as sub-tepid; (b) of a lower order, as sub-committee.
 - (3) Hybrids: sub-let, sub-kingdom.

Sur, super (Fr. sur; Lat. super, above, beyond):-

- (1) Sur-coat, sur-face, sur-feit, sur-plice, surname, sur-vey; super-flu-ous, super-scription, which occur in M.E., are directly from the Latin.
- (2) Modern forms are sur-prise, sur-pass, sur-charge, super-ficies, super-scribe, &c., summerset = Fr. soubre-saut, Lat. super-saltum.

Tres, tra, trans (O.Fr. tres; Fr. tre, tra; Lat. trans, across):—

- (1) Tres-pass, tra-itor, trea-son, tra-vel, traverse, trans-figure, trans-form, trans-late, transmigration.
 - (2) Trans-cription, trans-port, tra-dition, &c., are modern forms.

Ultra (Lat. ultra, beyond) :-

- (1) Out-rage.
- (2) Ultra-liberal.

Vis, vice (Fr. vis; Lat. vice, instead of):-

- (1) Vic-ar.
- (2) Vis-count, vice-roi, &c.

Bis, bi (Lat. bis, twice; bini, two by two) :-

- (1) None.
- (2) Bis-sextile, bi-ennial, bin-ocular.
- (3) Biscuit is modern French biscuit, Lat. bis-coctum.

Demi (Fr. demi; Lat. dimidium, half):-

(1) Demi-god, demi-quaver.

Semi (Lat. semi, half) :-

(1) Semi-circle, semi-column.

Mal, mau, male (Fr. mal, mau; Lat. male, ill):-

- (r) Mau-gre, mal-ady.
- (2) Male-diction, mal-evolent.
- (3) Mal-treat, mal-content.

Non (Lat. non, not):-

- (1) Noun-power impotence. Chaucer's Boethius, P. 75.
 - (2) Non-sense, non-existent.
 - (3) Non-chalance, non-pareil.

Mis (Fr. mes; Lat. minus, less):-

- (1) Mis-chance (M.E. mescheance), mis-chief (M.E. meschief); (2) mis-fortune and mis-nomer are modern analogous forms.
 - (3) Més-alliance.

Pen (Fr. pén; Lat. pæne, almost):— Pen-insula, pen-ultimate.

Sans, sine (Fr. sans, Lat. sine, without):-

(2) Sine-cure, sin-cere.

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(3) Sans-culotte, sans-culottism.

246. Greek Prefixes.

Nearly all compounds with Greek prefixes are of late origin.

An-, a- (àv, à), negative like Lat. in- and Eng. un-:

an-archy, an-æsthetic, a-pathy.

Amphi- (ἀμφί), about, on both sides. Cp. Lat. am, amb, O.E. umbe, ymbe, about: amphi-bious, amphitheatre.

Ana- (àvá), up, up to, again, back: ana-logy, analysis, an-ec-dote.

Anti- (ἀντί), opposite to, against: anti-dote, anti-

pathy, anti-thesis, ant-arctic.

Apo-, ap- $(\dot{a}\pi\dot{o})$, away from, from. Cp. Lat. ab, Eng. off: apo-logy, apo-strophe, apo-gee, apo-crypha, aphelion.

Apocalypse, from the Latin, occurs in Middle English; also pocalips (Piers Plowman, B. p. 215).

Arch-, archi- (ἀρχή), chief, head: arch-heretic, arch-aism, archi-tect.

Shakespeare uses arch as a root in King Lear, ii. 1, "My worthy arch." Arch-bishop occurs in M.E. Chaucer has archi-wyves (Clerkes Tale), archi-deknes (Prologue). The last existed in O.E.

Auto-, aut (αὐτο), self: auto-crat, auto-graph. Cata. cath-, cat- (κατά), down, downwards.

about: cata-ract, cata-strophe, cath-olic, cat-hedral, cat-egorize.

Dia- (διά), through: dia-meter, dia-gonal.

Di- (δι). Cp. Lat. dis, Eng. to: di-syllable, (often mis-spelt dissyllable) di-phthong.

Dys- (δυς) ill: dys-peptic, dys-entery.

Ec-, ex- $(\hat{\epsilon}\kappa, \hat{\epsilon}\xi)$ out, forth; cp. Lat. ex: ec-centric, ec-lectic, ex-orcism.

En- $(\hat{\epsilon}\nu)$, in. Cp. Lat. *in*-: en-thusiasm, en-tomology, en-comium, em-piric, em-phasis, el-liptical.

Epi-, ep- (ἐπί), upon, on, by: epi-demic, epi-

taph, epi-tome, ep-och.

Eu-, well: eu-logy, eu-phony.

U in Utopia is for ov, not ev.

Evangelist occurs in M.E. and comes through the Latin.

Hemi- (ήμι), half: hemi-stich, hemi-sphere.

Hyper- (ὑπέρ), above, beyond. Cp. Lat. super, Eng. over: hyper-bole, hyper-critical.

Hypo-, hyp- (ὑπο), under. Cp. Lat. sub: hypo-

crite, hypo-thesis, hyp-hen.

Meta-, met- (μετά), after, trans: meta-phorical, meta-morphosis, (cp. Latin trans-form), met-hod.

Mono-, mon- ($\mu o \nu o$), single, alone: mono-graph, mon-archy. Also monk = O.E. munec.

Pan- (πάν), all: pan-theistic, pan-acea.

Para-, par- $(\pi\alpha\rho\dot{a})$, beside, against: para-dox, para-site, para-phrase, par-helion, para-ble. Cp. parley, from Fr. through Latin.

Peri- (περί), round. Cp. Lat. per, Eng. for: peri-

meter, peri-odical, peri-phrasis.

Pro- (πρό), before. Cp. Lat. pro, Eng. fore: prologue, pro-gnostic.

Pro-phet and pro-phecy, prologue, proem occur in M.E. Pro-gramme is Fr.

Pros- $(\pi\rho\delta\varsigma)$, towards: pros-elyte, pros-ody.

Syn- (σύν), with: syn-opsis, syn-tax, sym-pathy, syl-logism, sy-stem.

247. We have some few Greek suffixes that have come from Latin though Norman-French. See suffixes, ic (pp. 227, 234), in (p. 228), ist (p. 228) sy (p. 231), ize (p. 236).

APPENDIX.

Note to p. 68. he and she. In M.E. we find he and she used as nouns.

"Queper-sum it war sco or he,
To godd be-taght pan suld it be."
C. MUNDI, C. l. 10205.

Note to p. 96. former = O.E. forma, M.E. forme; the r seems to have arisen out of the final e; former occurs in the Göttingen text of the Cursor Mundi; but Fairfax has forme and Cotton form. See Cursor Mundi, (ed. Morris, p. 526, l. 9156).

Note to p. 122. What and aught: "gif he hwat dælan wyle" = "zif he awiht delan wule." (See O. E. Hom. i. p. 297 and p. 103.)

Note to p. 189. a = of. Cp. the Göttingen and Cotton texts of the C. Mundi, 1, 8968.

" Hu all bis werld sal wite awai,"

COTTON.

" Hou all bis world suld wit of way." Görtingen.

"Wendah mîn heafod ofdune, forbon he mîn Drihten Hælend Crist of heofenum adune to eorban astac."

"Turn my head adown (downwards), because my Lord Jesus Christ came from heaven adown to earth."—Blickling Homilies, ed. Morris, p. 191.



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